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THE CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION

CONDUCTED BY

THE ADVISORY COMMITTEE OF

THE AMERICAN CLASSICAL LEAGUE

PART ONE

GENERAL REPORT

A Summary of Results with Recommendations for
the Organization of the Course in Secondary Latin
and for Improvement in Methods of Teaching

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PREFACE

IN presenting this General Report as Part I of the classical investigation, our hearty thanks are due to the General Education Board for its liberal help which made the investigation possible; to universities, colleges and schools which gave facilities for the work; to public, professional, scientific, literary and business men who have encouraged the enterprise; to the many classical professors and teachers who have served on the various committees; to the many professors of education and psychology who have been our collaborators and critics; to leading scholars and educational officers in England and France for very valuable counsel; to the American University Union and the American Library in Paris for help in securing French articles and records; to the United States Bureau of Education, the College Entrance Examination Board and the Department of Education of the State of New York for their extensive and indispensable statistical contributions; to our State Superintendents of Education for important information; to practically all the classical associations, local, State or regional; to the journals and newspapers which have published for us studies, reviews and other articles; to many individual helpers and especially to the more than eight thousand self-sacrificing teachers of Latin and Greek, English, French and history who have given their time and labor freely to helping in the investigation.

The work has taken over three years thus far and has extended to all parts of our country. Our purpose has been to improve the teaching of the classics. We trust that the methods used and the conclusions reached will commend themselves to all who care for American education.

The Advisory Committee of the
AMERICAN CLASSICAL LEAGUE

September, 1924

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CHAPTER I

BRIEF HISTORY OF THE CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION

IN May, 1920, the General Education Board indicated to the American Classical League its willingness to finance an investigation of the classics in American secondary schools. In June, 1920, the American Classical League took the following action:

“Whereas a full and accurate inquiry into the status of the classics in our secondary schools is very desirable,

“And whereas the American Classical League is informed that the General Education Board is favorable to the undertaking of such an inquiry and is also favorable to defraying the reasonable expenses of such an inquiry,

“And whereas the American Classical League is the only national body representing all the leading classical associations of the United States,

“Resolved that the President of the American Classical League is hereby authorized to appoint a special committee which shall have complete power to negotiate this matter with the General Education Board and to select an Advisory Committee and expert investigators to conduct the inquiry,

“And be it further resolved that the said Special Committee is also empowered to take whatever other steps may in their judgment seem advisable in connection with the proposed inquiry.”

After two preliminary conferences and much correspondence the following plan for the proposed investigation was adopted by the Special Committee of the American Classical League, in January, 1921, for presentation to the General Education Board:

Programme of Investigation

- I. The investigation will naturally have three stages:
 1. A careful inquiry into the relevant facts so that the existing situation may be clearly known.
 2. Then an analysis and an impartial criticism of the ascertained facts.
 3. Finally, and most important of all, the preparation of a progressive constructive plan for the teaching of the classics in the secondary schools of the United States.
- II. The subjects to be considered under these aspects are the following:
 1. Existing administrative policies and their effect on secondary school study of the classics.
 2. The present provision for Latin instruction.
 3. The recent and present enrolment and record of Latin pupils.
 4. The secondary course of study in its present general arrangement and varying adaptations in relation to the study of Latin.
 5. The all-important question of the spirit and method of the teaching. Early development of the pupil's ready use of the language and of reading power. Introduction to Latin through English.
 6. The better training of classical teachers and practicable agencies for securing the same.
 7. Arrangement of the Latin courses of study to secure a better adaptation of content and method to the age and ability of the pupil.
 8. The relation of the completed school course in Latin to college entrance requirements.
 9. Consideration of the place and value of vocational

Latin, use of translations and of the newer helps, such as Latin phrase-books, songs and plays, charts, pictures of domestic and public life, ancient coins, inscriptions, works of art and other illustrative material.

10. The relation of Latin to other secondary school studies.
11. The status of Greek by itself and in relation to Latin and other subjects.
12. The new situation in secondary education. The movement for securing a longer secondary school course by beginning earlier, thus saving the present waste in the elementary schools. Great importance of this for solving the problem of the place of the classics in the schools. The Junior High School. Its advantages and defects in this connection.
13. Consideration of identical or closely similar questions now emerging in Great Britain, France and Germany in view of the lessons taught by the World War.

III. The method proposed is:

1. Formulation of the plan of investigation by a general advisory committee, assisted by regional committees.
2. Carrying out the plan of investigation by experts.
3. Regular conferences of committees to consider reports of experts and for whatever other purpose deliberation is needed.
4. Preparation by the general advisory committee of a complete report embodying the results of the investigation.
5. Publication and distribution of this report.

In February, 1921, the General Education Board accepted the plan and made an appropriation for the expense of its prosecution. Additional appropriations were also subsequent-

ly made. In March, 1921, the Special Committee elected the following Advisory Committee of fifteen members to have charge of the investigation:

Andrew F. West, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.,
Chairman

M. Julia Bentley, Hughes High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

A. L. Bondurant, University of Mississippi, University, Miss.

W. L. Carr, formerly of Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio; now
of University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Roy C. Flickinger, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.

Mason D. Gray, East High School, Rochester, N.Y.

Richard M. Gummere, William Penn Charter School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Gonzalez Lodge, Teachers College, Columbia University,
New York City

W. V. McDuffee, Central High School, Springfield, Mass.

F. J. Miller, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Henry Pennypacker, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

Frances E. Sabin, formerly of the University of Wisconsin,
Madison, Wis.; now of Teachers College, Columbia Uni-
versity, New York City

Julius Sachs, New York City

A. T. Walker, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.

W. R. Webb, Jr., Webb School, Bell Buckle, Tenn.

The following were chosen to serve as the Special Investi-
gating Committee:

Andrew F. West, Princeton, N.J., Chairman

W. L. Carr, Oberlin, Ohio

Mason D. Gray, Rochester, N.Y.

W. V. McDuffee, Springfield, Mass.

A central office for the investigation was established in Princeton together with three other offices in Oberlin, Rochester and Springfield.

The summer of 1921 was needed to complete organization of the eight Regional Committees. Their membership, consisting of fifty-five persons in all, is as follows:

1. New England

Alfred E. Stearns, Principal of Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., Chairman

W. V. McDuffee, Central High School, Springfield, Mass., Secretary

Samuel E. Bassett, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vt.

Ruth A. Finberg, Deerfield Academy, Deerfield, Mass.

Paul Nixon, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine

Margaret C. Waites,¹ Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.

2. Middle Atlantic States

(New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia)

Elmer E. Bogart, Principal of Morris High School, New York City, Chairman

Jessie E. Allen, Girls' High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

S. Dwight Arms, State Department of Education, Albany, N.Y.

Charles H. Breed, East Providence, R.I.

Mildred Dean, Central High School, Washington, D.C.

Arthur W. Howes, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

George D. Kellogg, Union College, Schenectady, N.Y.

Anna P. MacVay, Wadleigh High School, New York City

Evan T. Sage, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

3. The South

(All states south of the Ohio and Potomac and east of the Mississippi Rivers, not including Louisiana)

R. G. Peoples, Battle Ground Academy, Franklin, Tenn., Chairman

Olive B. Catlin, Girls' High School, Louisville, Ky.

¹ Died March 15, 1923.

George Howe, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill,
N.C.

Catherine Torrance, Agnes Scott College, Decatur, Ga.

Carter Walker, Woodberry Forest, Va.

C. B. Wallace, University School, Nashville, Tenn.

Julius Wright, Mobile, Ala.

4. Central West

(Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin)

Lillian Gay Berry, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.,
Chairman

Harriet Bouldin, High School, Springfield, Ill.

Anna Claybaugh, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Ind.

Kenneth Culbertson, Austin High School, Chicago, Ill.

Benjamin L. D'Ooge, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.

Harry F. Scott, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

Leta Wilson, High School, Madison, Wis.

5. Southwest

(Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona)

William James Battle, University of Texas, Austin, Texas,
Chairman

C. A. Ives, State High School Inspector, Baton Rouge, La.

Lourania Miller, Forest Avenue High School, Dallas, Texas

W. J. Moyes, South End Junior High School, Houston,
Texas

G. A. Simmons, Hendrix College, Conway, Ark.

Ruby Terrill, East Texas State Normal College, Commerce,
Texas

Maude T. Lourey, Central High School, Tulsa, Okla.

6. Northwest

(Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota)

B. L. Ullman, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa,
Chairman

T. Jennie Green, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Mo.

W. L. Holtz, Kansas State Normal School, Emporia, Kan.

Jessie B. Jury, Lincoln High School, Lincoln, Neb.

Edgar A. Menk, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks,
N.D.

D. S. White, formerly of Central High School, Minneapolis,
Minn., now of High School, Ann Arbor, Mich.

Nellie E. Wilson, North High School, Des Moines, Iowa.

7. The Rockies

(Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, Utah, Nevada)

Milo G. Derham, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.,
Chairman

Charles C. Mierow, Colorado College, Colorado Springs,
Colo., Secretary

Harold L. Axtell, University of Idaho, Moscow, Idaho

Ralph S. Pitts, East Side High School, Denver, Colo.

Alice E. Rowe, Salt Lake City, Utah

8. Pacific Coast

(California, Oregon, Washington)

Clinton C. Conrad, University High School, Oakland, Cal.,
Chairman

Clara Edith Bailey, Technical High School, Oakland, Cal.

S. F. Dunn, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.

Jefferson Elmore, Leland Stanford University, Cal.

Arthur P. McKinlay, University of California, Southern
Branch, Los Angeles, Cal.

Mrs. E. L. Maddox, Sacramento, Cal.

Francis O. Mower, Oakland, Cal.

These are the classical committees, with seventy members in all, which have coöperated in the investigation. The following meetings have been held:

I. Preliminary Conferences:

1. Special Committee of the American Classical League,
New York City, January 8, 1921.

2. Special Committee of the American Classical League,
New York City, March 12, 1921.

II. Meetings of the Advisory Committee:

1. New York City, April 9, 1921.
2. Philadelphia, Pa., July 6, 1921. (Chairmen of Regional Committees included.)
3. Boston, Mass., July 1, 1922. (Chairmen of Regional Committees included.)
4. New York City, May 19, 1923.
5. Ann Arbor, Mich., June 29, 1923. (Chairmen of Regional Committees included.)
6. New York City, April 14, 15 and 16, 1924. (Chairmen of Regional Committees included.)

III. Meetings of the Regional Committees:²

1. Regional Committees of the Central West and of the Northwest, Chicago, Ill., November 26, 1921.
2. Regional Committees of New England and of the Middle Atlantic States, New York City, January 7, 1922.
3. Regional Committee of the Rockies, Denver, Colo., February 4, 1922.
4. Regional Committee of the Pacific Coast, Berkeley, Cal., February 18, 1922.
5. Regional Committee of the Southwest, Dallas, Texas, March 4, 1922.
6. Regional Committee of the South, Atlanta, Ga., April 29, 1922.
7. Regional Committee of the Pacific Coast, San Francisco, Cal., July 5, 1923.

IV. Meetings of the Special Investigating Committee (sometimes occupying two or three days):

1. Preceding each meeting of the Advisory Committee.
2. Preceding the joint meeting of the Regional Com-

² One or more members of the Special Investigating Committee have been present at each meeting of a Regional Committee.

mittees of the Central West and of the Northwest and the joint meeting of the Regional Committees of New England and of the Middle Atlantic States.

3. Three other meetings at Princeton, N.J., and Rochester, N.Y.

V. Mention should also be made of many occasions on which the character and progress of the investigation were explained by members of the Advisory, Regional or Special Investigating Committees at meetings of local, state or regional classical associations.

In addition, the collaboration and criticism of forty-eight leading professors of education and psychology has been secured and has proved very valuable. These professors have given their time and effort freely and have helped to clarify the investigation and to divest it of any bias that might possibly be attributed to it in case it were conducted solely by teachers of the classics. The following nineteen have been our principal collaborators:

Thomas H. Briggs, Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

Leo J. Brueckner, Associate Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, and Director of Tests and Measurements of Minneapolis, Minn.

B. R. Buckingham, Professor of Education and Director of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

W. W. Charters, Professor of Education and Director of Research Bureau, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Sturgis B. Davis, Head of the Department of Educational Administration, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

V. A. C. Henmon, Professor of Education and Director of the School of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

Milo B. Hillegas, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

Arthur J. Jones, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Thomas J. Kirby, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

S. A. Leonard, Professor of the Teaching of English, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

William A. McCall, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

M. V. O'Shea, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

Luella W. Pressey, Instructor in Psychology, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

Sidney L. Pressey, Assistant Professor of Psychology, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

H. Lester Smith, Dean of the School of Education and Director of the Bureau of Coöperative Research, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

P. R. Stevenson, Research Associate of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

Edward L. Thorndike, Professor of Educational Psychology and Director of the Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

W. L. Uhl, Associate Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

Clifford Woody, Professor of Education and Director of the Bureau of Educational Reference and Research, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

From time to time, as occasion arose, valuable advice and criticism on various parts of the investigation were also received from the following twenty-nine other professors of education and psychology:

William C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

W. V. Bingham, Professor of Psychology, Psychological Division, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Franklin Bobbitt, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

Carl Brigham, Assistant Professor of Psychology, Princeton University, Princeton, N.J.

J. C. Chapman, Professor of Education, Yale University, New Haven, Conn.

H. S. Childs, Professor of Secondary Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

S. S. Colvin,² Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City

Calvin O. Davis, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

F. N. Freeman, Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

S. C. Garrison, Professor of Educational Psychology, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

James M. Glass, State Director of Junior High Schools, Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.

Frank P. Graves, State Commissioner of Education for New York, Albany, N.Y.

Melvin E. Haggerty, Dean of the Department of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

Alexander J. Inglis,³ Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

Charles H. Judd, Professor of Education and Director of the

² Died July 15, 1923.

³ Died April 12, 1924.

School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
Truman L. Kelly, Professor of Education, Leland Stanford University, Cal.

Leroy A. King, Assistant Professor of Educational Administration, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

F. B. Knight, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa

Leonard V. Koos, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

E. A. Miller, Professor of Education, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio

Louis A. Pechstein, Professor of Education, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio

S. J. Phelps, Professor of School Administration, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

R. H. Stetson, Professor of Psychology, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio

L. L. Thurstone, Professor of Psychology, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Marion Rex Trabue, Professor of Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N.C.

Harlan Updegraff, formerly Professor of Educational Administration, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., now President of Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa

Guy M. Whipple, Professor of Experimental Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

A. Duncan Yocum, Professor of Educational Theory and Practice, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

Another invaluable coöperating agency is the United States Bureau of Education, which under the superintendency of Hon. John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, has made an elaborate statistical inquiry into the status of the classical languages since the World War in all American secondary schools and has also obtained statis-

tics showing the status of the modern languages for the same period. The facts are now made available for the first time, and in authoritative form. The State Department of Education for New York placed its records at our disposal through the authorization of Commissioner Frank P. Graves and thus made possible the extensive study conducted by S. Dwight Arms, Elmer E. Bogart and J. Cayce Morrison. The College Entrance Examination Board also placed its records at our disposal and greatly facilitated our work. Mention should likewise be made of important help given by the Classical Association of New England and by other classical societies. Through the agency of the eight Regional Committees, and by special personal inquiry also, it has been our great good fortune to secure the voluntary unremunerated help of 8,595 teachers, mostly teachers of the classics, together with many teachers of English, French and history, who have given much time to marking, checking and accounting for the experimental work in all parts of the country. Such a free-will offering is unmatched in the history of any educational inquiry thus far conducted in our land. The investigation has been carried on throughout the two academic years 1921-1922 and 1922-1923 in every State in the Union. A great deal of travelling has been necessary. About a year and a half more has been taken in preparing for the investigation and in collecting and summarizing its results. The total number of secondary schools enlisted in the investigation is 1,313⁵ and the total number of pupils tested is approximately 150,000. The total number of individual tests given is approximately 750,000.

With the time and money available it was not possible to investigate every matter proposed in the comprehensive pro-

⁵ If the 990 schools included in the special New York State survey are included, the grand total of schools, after deducting New York schools already included in the total of 1,313, will exceed 2,000.

gramme which was adopted at the start, nor to give any large attention to Greek. Nor was it necessary to do so. The reasons will be explained later. But the most important facts needing investigation have been studied and the plan of procedure has been adhered to rigorously; namely, first to find the facts, then to make an analysis and impartial criticism of the facts, and finally to prepare a progressive constructive programme for the teaching of the classics in our secondary schools. It is clear to us that there are human values involved in learning the classics which are not measurable in mechanical terms and that there are also certain processes and results which can be so measured with fairly close accuracy. We have endeavored to test these processes and results by definite scientific experiment. The many tests and controlled experiments employed for this purpose have been devised with the utmost care on the basis of the most recent improved methods of measurement. The statistical and historical studies and the collections of expert opinion have been made with equal care.

The results of the investigation, including our specific recommendations, are detailed and grouped in their natural order in the successive chapters of this volume and our general conclusions are stated in the closing chapter. The various tests, experiments, projects, statistical and historical studies and collections of expert opinion which constitute the material on which this Report is based will be presented more fully in five additional volumes, which will be prepared for publication as rapidly as is practicable. The six Parts of the Report are as follows:

Part I. General Report.

Part II. Documentary Evidence for the General Report.

Part III. The Classics in England, France and Germany.

Part IV. English Word-Count and Latin Word-List.

Part V. Latin Word-Count. A special lexicon based on frequency of use in school and college Latin.

Part VI. Derivative Lexicon, Latin and Greek. Based on a word-count of the entire English language as recorded in the Oxford New English Dictionary.

Arrangements for publishing and distributing Part I and Part III have already been made. In case it is found impracticable, because of the large mass of documents, to secure the publication of Part II, the documents will be kept for inspection.

CHAPTER II

STATISTICAL STATUS OF LATIN AND GREEK

Section 1. Introduction

THIS chapter contains statistical information from the secondary schools and colleges of the country. The coöperating agencies which have made possible the compilation of the facts herein presented are the United States Bureau of Education, the principals and Latin teachers of over 10,000 secondary schools, the registrars or other officials of practically every college in the country, all the state superintendents of public instruction and many other persons.

The information gathered from the sources mentioned above is given in three sections, followed by tables (in Appendix A) showing certain facts in detail. The more important points may be summarized as follows:

1. The total enrolment in Latin in the secondary schools of the country for the year 1923-1924 is estimated by the United States Bureau of Education at 940,000, slightly in excess of the combined enrolment in all other foreign languages. It is approximately 27.5% of the total enrolment of pupils in all secondary schools, including the seventh and eighth grades of junior high schools, or 30% if these grades are not included. The enrolment in Greek is only about 11,000, but shows some signs of increase. In the public high schools nearly one-half of the Latin enrolment is in the ninth grade or below, while only one-fifteenth is in the twelfth grade. About one-half of this decrease is due to the corresponding decrease in total enrolment.¹ About 83%

¹This makes no allowance for the appreciable number of pupils who begin Latin in the second year or later.

of the 20,500 secondary schools of the country offer instruction in one or more foreign languages. Of this number 94% offer Latin, a slightly larger percentage than in the case of all other foreign languages combined. The number offering four years of Latin is more than double the number offering three years of French, four years being the ordinary maximum time given to Latin and three years the ordinary maximum time given to French.

2. There are approximately 22,500 teachers of Latin in the secondary schools of the country. More than 25% of these teachers have had less than eight years of schooling beyond the elementary grades, almost exactly 25% have not studied Latin beyond the secondary-school stage and only slightly over 25% have studied Greek,—half of this number not beyond the secondary-school stage.
3. The Latin enrolment in the colleges of the country in 1923-1924 was approximately 40,000 and the Greek enrolment about 16,000. There are many signs in the colleges of an increasing interest in both Latin and Greek. Recent extensive studies show that there is a strong voluntary tendency to offer Latin for college entrance and that although "the largest specific (foreign) language requirement is in Latin," the average offerings of Latin presented by candidates for college entrance amount to "more than three times the prescription."²
4. Of the 609 colleges in the United States listed by the United States Bureau of Education in 1922-1923, 234 offer courses in beginning Latin, 470 in beginning Greek, 237 give teacher-training courses in Latin and 214 require two to four years of Latin for admission to the A.B. course.
5. Apparently only five states have a definite requirement that one must have studied Latin (or Greek) in college in

² Report of Clyde Furst, Association of American Colleges, 111 Fifth Avenue, New York. Vol. X, No. 3 (Bulletin of May, 1924), pp. 200, 201.

order to teach the subject in the public high schools of the state, and only one state requires any previous teachers' training work in the language.

6. Thirty-nine of the forty-eight state superintendents of public instruction state that their attitude toward Latin is sympathetic or distinctly friendly. Seven express themselves as neutral and two as unsympathetic or distinctly unfriendly. As regards Greek, eight are sympathetic or distinctly friendly, twenty-four are neutral and sixteen are unsympathetic or distinctly unfriendly.

Section 2. Secondary Schools

1. *Enrolment in Latin, Greek and modern languages in 1923-1924.*

Table I, given in Appendix A at the end of this book,³ gives the estimated enrolment in foreign languages in all public and private secondary schools of the continental United States in 1923-1924. The formulas used in arriving at these estimates were worked out by the United States Bureau of Education. The exact estimates thus obtained have been used for Latin, Greek and French, but have been somewhat increased for German and decreased for Spanish, as there is evidence to show that these corrections should be made. It is probable also that the figures for Latin should be at least slightly larger, but in the absence of definite proof they have been left unchanged.

It will be noticed that the Latin enrolment is not only much larger than has been commonly thought to be the case, but is also a little larger than the combined enrolment in all other foreign languages. On the other hand the Greek enrolment, especially in the public high schools, is so small as to cause deep concern to all friends of classical education.

³ Tables I-XIII, mentioned in Sections 1 and 2 of this chapter, are put together in Appendix A at the end of this book.

Tables II and III show the actual foreign language enrolment by states in 1921-1922 in approximately 76% of the secondary schools of the country, not including pupils in the seventh and eighth grades of the junior high schools. These tables, together with an estimate of the schools not reporting and of the changes in enrolment between 1921-1922 and 1923-1924, served as the basis for the formulas used in computing the figures in Table I. In Tables II and III also the Latin enrolment is greater than in the other foreign languages combined.

Table IV gives the facts of Tables II and III in terms of percentage of total enrolment.

Table V gives the percentage of pupils enrolled in Latin in the various groups of schools in 1921-1922.

Table VI shows the gain or loss by percentages in foreign-language enrolment in 1921-1922 (on the basis of Tables II and III) as compared with 1914-1915, the last time such general statistics were compiled by the United States Bureau of Education.

The decreased percentage in Latin enrolment as compared with the total enrolment in the public high schools during these seven years was to be expected. This decreased percentage, which is only slightly larger than the decreased percentage in the combined modern foreign languages, is accounted for by the enormous increase in the total enrolment of these schools. This has resulted in the presence in our public high schools of hosts of students who even ten years ago would not have thought of a secondary education. The great majority of these students do not care for the study of foreign languages, classical or modern, and very many of them are in schools of the agricultural, technical or commercial type, where Latin is not often taught.

Tables II-VI do not include enrolment below the ninth grade.

2. *Distribution of foreign languages by years in 1923-1924.*

Tables VII and VIII show the estimated distribution by grades of the enrolment as given in Table I. These estimates are based upon the returns to a special questionnaire sent out by the United States Bureau of Education. The returns to the questionnaire gave the exact distribution figures for about two-thirds of the schools included in these tables. The small enrolment of postgraduates is disregarded.

The striking feature in these tables is the decrease in Latin enrolment in the third and fourth years of the public high schools. It will be noticed that about one-half of this decrease is accounted for by the corresponding decrease in total enrolment in these years. This situation, however, is not satisfactory, especially in view of the character of the third and fourth years in Latin and of the fact that pupils like Vergil better than any other author read in the secondary course.⁴ The decrease in Latin enrolment in the third and fourth years of the private schools is much smaller.

3. *Number of schools offering work in the various foreign languages in 1922-1923 and the amount of Latin offered in these schools.*

There are approximately 20,500 secondary schools in the United States,—18,000 public and 2,500 private. About 83%, or 17,000, offer work in one or more foreign languages.

Table IX shows the situation in 10,177 of these 17,000 schools in 1922-1923 as to the number of schools offering work in the various languages. The table is based upon the returns to the special questionnaire already mentioned, which was sent out by the United States Bureau of Education. In this table Latin is subdivided so as to show the number of

⁴ It is to be remembered that some pupils who are taking Latin in the third and fourth years are not taking third- and fourth-year Latin, because they do not begin the subject until the second year or later. There are other pupils who begin Latin in the junior high school and continue it for three years or longer.

schools offering it for one year, two years, three years and four years or more. For purposes of comparison French, the other leading foreign language, is also subdivided to the extent of showing how many schools offer three years or more.

Table X gives the facts of Table IX on a basis of percentage, separating the schools into groups. These percentages will undoubtedly hold good approximately, within their respective groups, for the 17,000 schools referred to above.

The table is particularly interesting in view of the fact that in some quarters one of the chief arguments against the requirement of Latin (especially four years of it) for entrance to the A.B. course is that such requirement keeps out many students who are not able to get Latin in their secondary schools. The table shows not merely that the percentage of schools offering Latin is greater than the percentage of schools offering any or all other foreign languages—as would be expected from Tables I-III—but that the percentage of schools offering four years of Latin is double the percentage of schools offering three years of French, the next leading foreign language in enrolment.

This table, in connection with Table I, is also of interest to prospective teachers. The two tables clearly show the entire lack of foundation for the advice frequently given to such students not to specialize in Latin on the ground that there is no strong demand for Latin teachers.

The fact that Spanish is offered in thirty times as many public high schools as offer Greek is another point of interest, especially in view of the common argument against Greek that under present-day conditions time ought not to be given to this study because of the large provision which should be made for the more "practical" subjects. The whole Greek-German-Spanish situation, as revealed by this table, offers food for serious thought on the part of those who are in educational administrative positions.

4. *Educational qualifications of Latin teachers.*

It is estimated that there are approximately 22,500 teachers of Latin in the secondary schools of the country. This estimate, made by the Bureau of Education for this investigation, gives for the first time a reliable statement of the approximate total number of Latin teachers in the country. The number is much larger than has been generally supposed, but it is to be remembered that many teachers of Latin, perhaps half of them, teach one or more other subjects in connection with Latin.

Table XI gives certain information as to the educational qualification of 10,439 of these teachers—about 46% of the total number. The table is based upon returns to the special questionnaire already referred to. It is believed that the percentages there given will hold good approximately for the entire 22,500.

So far as general education and the number of years spent in the study of Latin before beginning to teach Latin are concerned, it will be seen that conditions are not particularly unsatisfactory except in public high schools in places with a population of under 2,500, where nearly 40% of the Latin teachers have never gone beyond the secondary-school stage in their own study of the language and where almost as many are not college graduates. These small schools include over three-fourths of the public high schools of the country and about three-eighths of the public high school Latin enrolment,—a fact, incidentally, which complicates the problems of this investigation. Furthermore, in view of known tendencies operating in the selection of teachers in small communities there is reason to believe that this group of small high schools furnishes considerably more than its proportionate number of future teachers.

In regard to the number of Latin teachers who have studied Greek the situation is bad in all the groups of schools and has

probably been getting worse rather than better during the past few years. Conditions are also distinctly bad in the matter of definite training in Latin for prospective teachers of Latin, although in this respect there has been an appreciable improvement during the last few years.

It is evident that this matter of the qualifications of teachers lies at the very foundation of the main question under discussion in this report, namely, how to improve the teaching of Latin and Greek. The causes of the weaknesses which exist are complex, though often obvious. The remedies should be studied with great care and applied with skill and patience; and it is not to be forgotten that some of the most necessary of these remedies are frequently of an economic nature.

Section 3. Colleges

1. Enrolment in Latin, Greek and modern languages.

Table XII shows by states the enrolment for 1922-1923 in Latin, Greek and the leading modern languages in 539 of the 609 colleges in the continental United States listed in the educational directory of the Bureau of Education for 1922-1923, as reported by these colleges to the investigating committee. Many of the colleges report an increasing interest in the two classical languages; several state that these languages are being introduced into the course of study for the first time and others that they are being reintroduced after an absence of some years.

On the basis of this table, after making allowance for the colleges not reporting, the number of Latin students in the colleges of the country in 1923-1924 is estimated at appreciably over 40,000, 12,500 of these being found in courses of secondary grade, and the number of Greek students at more than 16,000, 5,500 of these being found in courses of secondary grade. These figures do not include the enrolment in high school or preparatory departments of colleges.

As in the case of the secondary schools, the Greek-German-Spanish situation as revealed in Table XII is one of peculiar interest.

2. Certain other facts as to the position of Latin and Greek in the colleges.

Table XIII contains reports from all the 609 colleges of the country, showing the number which offer courses in beginning Latin or beginning Greek, and training courses in Latin or Greek for prospective teachers; also the number which require Latin for admission to the A.B. course and the number which offer Latin or Greek courses in English. This last item means the study of Latin or Greek literature in translation, or the study of those associated facts which are usually obtained, in part at least, from a study of these languages in the original. It does not include such subjects as Greek or Roman history, archaeology and the fine arts. The enrolment in these Latin-English and Greek-English courses is not included in Table XII.

While no comparative figures are available, there is reason to believe that there has been in recent years a marked increase in the effort to give those who enter college without Latin or Greek an opportunity to study these languages, or at least to get indirectly some knowledge of the literatures and civilizations they represent.

Section 4. State Departments of Education

The following paragraphs contain the summary of replies to a questionnaire sent out to the 48 state superintendents of public instruction. Replies were received from all the states.

To the question "What regulation, if any, has your department concerning the special preparation of Latin and Greek teachers?", 40 replied "none"; 2 stated that the matter is under the control of the state university, and 5 that the subjects must have been studied in college. Only one state

has a definite requirement that in order to teach Latin in the secondary schools of the state the applicant must have taken teacher-training work in Latin in college.

In reply to a question as to facilities for the training of Latin and Greek teachers in the state university, state normal schools or other institutions, 38 answers ranged from "adequate" to "excellent"; 6 answered "some" and 4 answered "none."

In reply to a question as to the attitude of the state department of education toward the study of Latin and Greek in the secondary schools of the state, the answers were as follows:

	LATIN	GREEK
Distinctly friendly	24	4
Sympathetic	15	4
Neutral	7	24
Unsympathetic	1	8
Distinctly unfriendly	1	8

The 39 state superintendents rated as distinctly friendly or sympathetic toward Latin represent states with a population of approximately 85,000,000, the 7 rated as neutral represent states with a population of approximately 11,000,000, and the 2 rated as unsympathetic or distinctly unfriendly represent states with a population of approximately 9,000,000.

The 8 state superintendents rated as distinctly friendly or sympathetic toward Greek represent states with a population of approximately 32,000,000, the 24 rated as neutral represent states with a population of approximately 44,000,000, and the 16 rated as unsympathetic or distinctly unfriendly represent states with a population of approximately 29,000,000.

Twenty-eight state superintendents state that the atti-

tude of the department has no effect on the enrolment in these subjects, while 20 state that so far as Latin is concerned the department's attitude does have an appreciable effect —apparently in 15 cases to increase and in 5 cases to decrease the enrolment.

The following are some of the more significant replies to a question as to the reasons for the attitude of the department:

"... is in the main an agricultural state and needs development. The traditional and aristocratic type of education we used to have has been a serious obstacle to our development. Although I have been a Latin specialist, I cannot be reasonable and at the same time try to promote in this state a type of education which does not fit 95% of our communities and seems to have little value for 90% of our young people."

"I believe that for most students some study of Latin can be made of great value. The first condition would be teachers who have the intelligence to break away from some of the deadly, dull and orthodox methods. In view of the fact that one-third of all the pupils in this state who study Latin at all study it for two years only, I have a very definite and strong opinion that we ought to make what might be described as revolutionary modifications in the work which we call upon these young people to do in these two years in the study of Latin."

"I have mourned that the publicity given Charles Francis Adams' Phi Beta Kappa address attacking the study of Greek was never given to his retraction of fifteen years later. I consider it a real misfortune that so few young people these days are studying Greek."

"The department has prescribed Latin as the only foreign language in high schools of three teachers or fewer, because it is the best *single* foreign language for high-school pupils to study."

"We believe that in the hands of competent teachers and with well organized material Latin offers very much of value to the high-school student in connection with his English training and general culture."

"Where Latin is taught so as to mean something in education of the present-day American boys and girls, I am 'distinctly friendly'; where it is being done to death by mediocre people or by people of narrow view, or those who teach it for traditional reasons or for formal discipline, I would rather see something substituted that means helpfulness in living during the next fifty years."

"We believe in Latin and Greek as integral parts of a cultural course in liberal arts."

"My slogan with reference to Latin is: 'Offer it to everyone; require it of no one.'"

"The department is inclined to hold the view that justification for the large proportion of high school pupils at present studying foreign languages cannot be made on the basis of direct and utilitarian values, except for a very select few. The comfort to be found in the transfer values and the indirect usefulness is somewhat meagre. When weighed against other subjects which may be placed in the curriculum, the claims of foreign languages seem relatively weak in the light of fundamental objectives."

"The Commissioner holds that the high school should offer an opportunity for youth to pursue the classical studies, and that it is a serious error to exclude Latin and Greek and to close to youth the entrance to the studies the influence of which is essentially paramount in literature. He is not unfriendly to the modern development of science and art departments, nor to vocational courses, but on the other hand he has not forgotten the significant contributions made to education by the classical scholarship of all ages."

"The department considers Latin of very great importance

as a basis for sound scholarship, especially for such students as are to pursue a college course. The peculiar values of content and intellectual drill furnished by Latin (and Greek) are not to be found elsewhere."

CHAPTER III

AIMS OR OBJECTIVES IN THE TEACHING OF SECONDARY LATIN

Section 1. Introduction

In the preceding chapter it was shown that there were in 1923-1924 approximately 940,000 pupils studying Latin in the secondary schools of the United States. It is a slightly larger number than the total number studying any or all other foreign languages. A grave responsibility rests upon the teachers of any subject which takes the time and energy of so large a number of pupils. It rests in even greater measure upon those charged with the organization and administration of courses of study in that subject.¹

The classical investigation was undertaken for the purpose of ascertaining definitely the present status of Latin and Greek and of preparing a constructive programme of recommendations for improving the teaching of Latin and Greek in the secondary schools of the United States.² In formulating our plans it has been assumed that Latin will continue to be taught as an instrument in the general education of a very large number of boys and girls in the secondary schools, that the results being secured in the teaching of Latin are not all they should be and that these results could be improved. There has been little criticism or complaint regarding the teaching of Greek and consequently little need for an examination of that subject. Evidently the first thing to do was to ascertain

¹ See Analysis of the General Questionnaire, Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

² "The Classical Survey: A Preliminary Report," *The Classical Journal*, XVII (October, 1921), p. 16.

the facts, good and bad, internal and external, by every means available and then to make recommendations on the basis of these findings.³

In organizing a course of study in Latin, or in any other subject, the aims or objectives of the course should first be clearly ascertained and then the content and method should be so chosen as to provide conditions most favorable for full attainment of the objectives determined upon as valid.⁴

The present chapter is devoted mainly to the fundamental question of aims or objectives, and the two succeeding chapters discuss chiefly the question of content and method. While the problems of objectives, content and method are treated for convenience in separate chapters, these problems are not independent of one another. They are clearly interdependent, and evidences of their close interrelation will appear in the treatment of almost every topic.

The encouraging tendency to begin the secondary period of education two years earlier through the establishment of junior high schools or of six-year secondary schools seems likely to become general. This may open the way for the desirable earlier introduction of Latin, with a resultant six-year course in Latin or in some cases a five-year course. However, a glance at the statistics of enrolment and distribution in Chapter II shows that at the present time the study of Latin in most secondary schools begins in the first year of a four-year course and continues for a maximum of four years. Accordingly in this discussion the present four-year Latin course is taken as the basis and the five-year and six-year courses are treated as modified extensions of the four-year course.

The problem of determining the objectives of the teaching

³ "The Classical Investigation: The Work of the First Two Years," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (June, 1923), p. 548.

⁴ "The Classical Survey: A Preliminary Report," *The Classical Journal*, XVII (October, 1921), pp. 16-27.

of Latin in the secondary schools is complicated by the fact that, on the basis of the present distribution, out of every hundred pupils who study Latin in the first year of the four-year secondary schools, 69 study it for two years, 31 for three years and 14 for four years or longer. Thus Latin is a one-year course for 31 pupils, a two-year course for 38, a three-year course for 17, and a four-year course for 14. Furthermore, the relation existing between secondary Latin and college Latin for the country as a whole is indicated by the fact that of these 14 pupils completing the four-year Latin course in the secondary school scarcely 5 may be expected under present conditions to continue the study of Latin in college.

While the course should be so organized as to secure the full cumulative results for four-year pupils, it must be borne in mind that under present conditions 69% of all the pupils who begin Latin in the secondary schools study Latin for one or two years only, and that such pupils must secure their returns during that period, if at all. The work of each year, therefore, beginning with the first, should be so organized as to be worth while in itself,⁵ whether or not the pupil is to go further in the study of Latin. Moreover, we are convinced that a course so organized will furnish a better preparation for continuing the study beyond the first two years.⁶ It is also reasonable to expect that with fuller appreciation on the part of pupils of the values secured from the study of Latin and with better adaptation of the content of the course to the ability and interests of the pupils, a larger proportion of those who begin Latin will pursue the study throughout the secondary school and continue it in college.⁷

⁵ See Analysis of General Questionnaire, Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

⁶ See Analysis of General Questionnaire, Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

⁷ W. L. Uhl, "How Much Time for Latin?", *The Classical Journal*, XIX (January, 1924), pp. 215-221, and "The Time Element in High Schools," *The School Review*, XXXII (February, 1924), pp. 105-121.

In discussing the objectives of the study of Latin it is necessary at the outset to emphasize the important distinction between ultimate and immediate objectives. By ultimate objectives are meant those which involve educational values upon which the justification of Latin as an instrument in secondary education must depend, namely, those abilities, knowledges, attitudes and habits which continue to function after the school study of Latin has ceased; for example, the ability to determine the meaning of an unfamiliar English word derived from Latin, the habit of sustained attention, or an appreciation of the influence of Roman civilization on the course of western civilization. By immediate objectives are meant those indispensable aims in which progressive achievement is necessary to ensure the attainment of the ultimate objectives, but which may cease to function after the school study of Latin has ceased; for example, the ability to conjugate a Latin verb or to translate a passage from Caesar.⁸

The indispensable primary immediate objective in the study of Latin is progressive development of ability to read and understand Latin.⁹ Without this it is not to be expected that the ultimate objectives will be obtained. In the attainment of this primary immediate objective several secondary objectives are involved, such as the ability to pronounce Latin, sufficient knowledge of Latin vocabulary, syntax and forms, and the ability to translate Latin into English and English into Latin. What is meant precisely by *reading* Latin and what is the relation of the other immediate objectives to the development of this ability will be discussed in the chapters on content and method.

⁸ "The Classical Survey: A Preliminary Report," *The Classical Journal*, XVII (October, 1921), pp. 18, 22. See also Hare, "An Evaluation of the Objectives in Latin," *The Classical Journal*, XIX (December, 1923), pp. 155-165.

⁹ "The Classical Investigation: The Work of the First Two Years," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (June, 1923), pp. 561, 567.

Except where the contrary is specified, it should be understood that any objective under discussion in the present chapter is being analyzed for the purpose of determining its validity as an ultimate objective, capable of functioning outside the Latin class-room and after the school study of Latin has ceased.

*Section 2. Procedure in Determining the Validity of
Ultimate Objectives*

As a first step in the determination of ultimate objectives valid for the secondary course in Latin, a tentative list¹⁰ derived from an examination of the literature of the subject was set up for examination. This list, somewhat modified during the progress of the investigation, is as follows:

Instrumental and application objectives:

1. Ability to read new Latin after the study of the language in school or college has ceased.
2. Increased ability to understand Latin words, phrases, abbreviations and quotations occurring in English.
3. Increased ability to understand the exact meaning of English words derived directly or indirectly from Latin, and increased accuracy in their use.
4. Increased ability to read English with correct understanding.
5. Increased ability to speak and write correct and effective English through training in adequate translation.
6. Increased ability to spell English words of Latin derivation.
7. Increased knowledge of the principles of English grammar, and a consequently increased ability to speak and write English grammatically correct.
8. Increased ability to learn the technical and semi-tech-

¹⁰ "The Classical Survey: A Preliminary Report," *The Classical Journal*, XVII (October, 1921), pp. 22-25.

usual terms of Latin origin employed in other school studies and in professions and vocations.

3. Increased ability to learn other foreign languages.

Disciplinary objectives:

1. The development of certain desirable habits and ideals which are subject to stretch, such as habits of sustained attention, orderly procedure, overcoming obstacles, persistence, ideals of achievement, accuracy and thoroughness, and the cultivation of certain general attitudes, such as dissatisfaction with failure of with partial success.
2. The development of the habit of discovering historical elements in different situations and experiences, and of making true generalizations.
3. The development of correct habits of reflective thinking applicable to the mastery of other subjects of study and to the solution of analogous problems in daily life.
4. Increased ability to make formal logical analyses.

Cultural objectives:

1. The development of an historical perspective and of a general cultural background through an increased knowledge of facts relating to the life, history, institutions, mythology and religion of the Romans; an increased appreciation of the influence of their civilization on the course of western civilization; and a broader understanding of social and political problems of today.
2. Increased ability to understand and appreciate references and allusions to the mythology, traditions and history of the Greeks and Romans.
3. The development of right attitudes toward social situations.
4. A better acquaintance through the study of their writings with some of the chief personal characteristics of the authors read.

5. Development of an appreciation of the literary qualities of Latin authors read, and development of a capacity for such appreciation in the literatures of other languages.
6. A greater appreciation of the elements of literary technique employed in prose and verse.
7. Improvement in the literary quality of the pupil's written English.
8. An elementary knowledge of the general principles of language structure.

These objectives are listed and discussed in three groups. It should not be inferred, however, that they are in actual practice so definitely separable as this classification might suggest. For example, an objective treated for convenience in the instrumental-application group may also have cultural aspects. In practice they are found to be blended.

It is not implied that the list given above exhausts all the possible values to be secured from the study of Latin. We believe, however, that it is amply sufficient to provide a basis for estimating most of the values commonly ascribed to the study of Latin in the secondary school so far as these lend themselves to definite statement as objectives, that is, as aims to be consciously sought in the teaching of secondary Latin.

It should also be understood that the objectives here examined have been defined in as concrete and specific a manner as possible in order better to measure their attainment under present conditions and also to indicate the content and method by which their attainment may be most effectually secured. For example, since the general contribution which the study of Latin may make to English includes several distinct elements, each of these elements has been evaluated as a separate objective in order to determine the relation of specific activities connected with the study of Latin to the attainment of each one of these objectives.

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Many of these objectives contain implications of much wider scope and suggest values for which the foundations may be laid in the secondary school, but which may be expected to develop largely only in the case of those who continue the subject in college; for example, an appreciation of writers of English prose and poetry whose works are markedly classical in spirit, theme or form.¹¹

The validity of each objective has been estimated in the light of all the evidence which could be collected with the resources available and within the time set for the investigation. Two principal means have been employed in securing these data: (1) scientific studies,¹² including tests and measurements¹³ and (2) analysis of expert opinion. As far as possible we have sought to determine on the basis of objective data the educational value of certain abilities, knowledges, attitudes and habits which may be developed through the study of Latin, and to measure the extent to which they are developed under present conditions or are developed under more favorable conditions such as were provided in the controlled experiments. In addition to using these scientific studies we have sought to discover and analyze the opinions of a considerable body of experienced teachers in the fields of psychology, education and Latin. The chief methods used in securing an expression of opinion have been:

- (1) A comprehensive general questionnaire filled out by 1150 experienced secondary teachers of Latin and

¹¹ See Report of Committee on Ancient Languages, of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

¹² "The Progress of the Classical Investigation," *The Classical Journal*, XVII (February, 1922), pp. 265-270, and "Report of Progress in a Number of Special Projects Connected with the Classical Investigation," *The Classical Weekly*, XV (April 17, 1922), pp. 170-172.

¹³ "The Testing Programme Involved in the Classical Investigation Now Under Way," *The Classical Weekly*, XV (November 14, 1921), pp. 41-43.

covering the entire field of objectives, content and method for the secondary course as a whole.¹⁴

- (2) A special score card for the relative evaluation of objectives year by year filled out by over three hundred teachers in various parts of the country.¹⁵
- (3) A symposium on the disciplinary aims of Latin to which nearly seventy leading professors of education and psychology contributed.¹⁶

On the basis of evidence secured from objective data and from analyses of opinion we have sought to answer the following questions¹⁷ about each objective in the list:

1. For what Latin pupils and for what proportion of Latin pupils is this objective of value, if attained?
2. To what extent are there elements common to the study of Latin and to the more general field or fields with which this objective is concerned?
3. To what extent is this objective attained or attainable through the study of Latin?
4. What content and methods are found to be most effective in attaining this objective?
5. What constructive measures should be taken in reorganizing content and method to insure a fuller attainment of this objective?

The evidence secured in answer to Questions 1, 2 and 3 above is presented in this chapter. Questions 4 and 5 are discussed in the two succeeding chapters on content and method.

¹⁴ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

¹⁵ Hare, "An Evaluation of Objectives in the Teaching of Latin," *The Classical Journal*, XIX (December, 1923), pp. 155-165. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 3.

¹⁶ "The Classical Investigation: The Work of the First Two Years," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (June, 1923), pp. 556-558. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 4.

¹⁷ "The Classical Survey: A Preliminary Report," *The Classical Journal*, XVII (October, 1921), pp. 18, 26.

*Section 3. The Evaluation of Ultimate Objectives**I. Instrumental and Application Objectives*

By instrumental objectives are meant those which involve the direct use of the ability to read and understand Latin, and by application objectives are meant those which involve the use of facts or methods acquired in the study of Latin in the acquisition of other facts in the linguistic experience of the pupil outside the immediate field of Latin.

1. Ability to read new Latin after the study of the language in school or college has ceased.

This ultimate objective is not to be confused with the primary immediate teaching objective, namely, a progressive development of power to read and understand Latin, which is indispensable for the attainment of the other objectives of the study of Latin.

In determining the validity of this objective, the first question to be asked in accordance with the plan outlined above is: For what Latin pupils and for what proportion of Latin pupils is this objective of value, if attained? The O'Shea study,¹⁸ based upon information secured through the extensive use of questionnaires sent to high school and college graduates, shows that of those college graduates who had studied¹⁹ Latin for one, two or three years in school and had studied no Latin in college, one-fourth of one per cent had

¹⁸ Part II, Chapter III, Section 7.

¹⁹ The replies of those college graduates who are or have been teachers of Latin were excluded from these calculations, inasmuch as the object of the inquiry was to determine the effect of the study of Latin, not the effect of teaching the subject. It is interesting to compare the percentages given above, based on the replies of college graduates who had not taught Latin, with percentages based on the replies of those who had reported that they were or had been teachers of Latin. Of those graduates who had studied Latin five years or more and had taught Latin four years or more, 19 per cent had during the preceding year read Latin not previously read

read during the preceding year some Latin not previously read; that of those who had studied Latin for four years in high school and none in college, 2% had read some new Latin; that of those who had studied Latin four years in high school and one or more additional years in college, 4% had read some new Latin. The amount read ranged from "short paragraphs in research" and "a few poems" to "the Institutes of Justinian" and "several hundred pages of medieval Latin."

An analysis of the present enrolment and distribution of students of Latin in the secondary schools and colleges shows that 860 of every thousand pupils who begin the study of Latin in high school discontinue the subject at the end of one, two or three years, 90 at the end of four years, and that the remaining 50 continue the subject in college. A comparison of these facts with the percentages given above indicates that under present conditions two out of each of these three groups or a total of six of every 1000 who begin the study of Latin in high school may be expected in any one year in after life to read some new Latin. As will be shown, practically all of these college graduates who answered the second questionnaire indicated their belief that they had secured very important indirect values from the study of the subject in high school and 86% answered "Yes" to the question: "If you had a son or daughter entering high school next year, would you advise him or her to take up the study of Latin?"

by them. The average number of years which those comprising this 19 per cent had taught Latin was seven; the average number of years they had studied Latin was seven. Of those graduates who had studied Latin for five years or more in high school or college and had taught Latin less than four years 9 per cent had read Latin not previously read by them. The average number of years which those comprising this 9 per cent had studied Latin was seven. Of those graduates who are now teachers of Latin 30 per cent had read Latin not previously read by them. Clearly one way of improving the teaching of Latin would be to secure the wider reading of Latin literature by teachers of Latin.

In the general questionnaire, in which teachers of Latin were asked to indicate which of the nineteen objectives listed they regarded as valid for the secondary course as a whole, this objective received the smallest number of votes, only 39% indicating that they regarded this objective valid for the secondary school course. In the score card in which teachers were asked to indicate their judgment as to the relative importance of these objectives, this objective was ranked lowest for the course as a whole.

The next question to be asked in regard to this objective is: To what extent is this objective attained? As the O'Shea study deals only with those who had actually read some new Latin, it does not show whether or not there are also others who could have read new Latin had they wished to do so. The Ullman study,²⁰ based upon measurements in successive years of the secondary course, shows a progressive development of power to answer questions on the thought content of Latin of ordinary difficulty, but does not furnish evidence as to the extent to which ability to read Latin without the aid of vocabulary and notes is under present conditions developed within the period of secondary education.

In the general questionnaire the teachers were also asked to indicate with what degree of success they believed the objectives which they regarded as valid were being attained in their individual schools. Of those teachers who regarded this objective as valid for the course as a whole 19% considered that the results secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

In view of the evidence given above we believe that this objective is not valid for most pupils in the secondary course and it is therefore omitted from the list of ultimate objectives recommended.

²⁰ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 2.

2. *Increased ability to understand Latin words, phrases, abbreviations and quotations occurring in English.*

The Walker study,²¹ based upon an examination of the reading material contained in leading newspapers and popular magazines, shows that pupils who progress beyond the elementary stage in their reading of English will encounter much material of this sort. In the reading material examined 997 different Latin words were found, exclusive of 499 Latin words naturalized as English, with a total number of occurrences amounting to 4,513. Thirty-eight different Latin abbreviations were found, some of which have been naturalized as English, with a total number of occurrences amounting to 11,245. The plurals of 81 different Latin words were found, with a total number of occurrences amounting to 1,391.

This objective was regarded as valid for the secondary course as a whole by 94% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective, somewhat differently stated, was ranked eighth for the first year, eleventh for the second year, fourteenth for the third year, and thirteenth for the fourth year of the secondary course.

The Henmon study,²² based on the results of tests run with several thousand Latin and non-Latin pupils in each of the various years of the secondary course, shows that Latin pupils are distinctly superior to non-Latin pupils in their ability to interpret these Latin elements in English reading. However, we agree with Professor Henmon that this objective, involving as it does a more or less direct use of Latin, should be attained in a far higher degree than is the case at present, and recommendations to that end will be made in the chapters dealing with content and method.

²¹ L. V. Walker, "The Latin of Current Periodicals and Newspapers," a doctor's dissertation at the University of Wisconsin, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 8.

²² See Part II, Chapter I, Section 14.

Of the teachers who in the general questionnaire indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, 60% considered that results secured in their own schools were satisfactory. In view of the total results of the tests mentioned above, this judgment should be regarded as too favorable.

3. *Increased ability to understand the exact meaning of English words derived directly or indirectly from Latin, and increased accuracy in their use.*

Obviously this ability is of great value²³ for every pupil who carries his formal or informal education beyond the most elementary stage. The Thorndike-Grinstead study,²⁴ based upon a count of over 7,000,000 running words, shows that 52% of the 17,303 English words most commonly occurring in the reading material examined are of Latin origin. Adding the words derived from Greek, largely through Latin, the total number of those English words of classical origin is 63%.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 98% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire. In the score card it was ranked respectively third, first, fourth and sixth for the successive years of the four-year secondary course.

The Thorndike-Ruger studies,²⁵ based on results of the Carr test, run with several thousand Latin and non-Latin pupils and covering a period of two years, show that pupils who had studied Latin for two semesters made an average growth in their knowledge of English words derived directly

²³ In so far as these words are already familiar to the pupil, a knowledge of their derivation is chiefly of cultural value through the vision which Latin gives of their origin and the insight frequently afforded by a knowledge of derivation into significant phases of human history.

²⁴ See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 2.

²⁵ E. L. Thorndike and G. J. Ruger, "The Effect of First-Year Latin upon a Knowledge of English Words of Latin Derivation," *School and Society*, XVIII (September 1, 1923), pp. 260-270, and XVIII (October 6, 1923), pp. 417-418; and "The Effect of Two Years of Latin upon Knowledge of English Words of Latin Derivation," Part II, Chapter I, Section 9.

from Latin two and one-half times greater than that made by their non-Latin classmates of the same initial ability, and that those pupils who had studied Latin for four semesters made an average superior growth in their knowledge of these words several times greater than that made by non-Latin pupils of the same initial ability. This superior growth of the Latin pupils is more noticeable in the first semester than in any succeeding semester of the two years covered by the tests. These tests are designed to measure growth in passive, that is, in reading and hearing vocabulary; but since the test requires the pupil to choose between five different words offered as interpretations of each of the test words, it is also in a sense a test of the pupil's active, that is, his speaking and writing vocabulary. It may be assumed, moreover, that an increase in a pupil's passive vocabulary ultimately results in an increase in his active vocabulary. The superior growth of Latin pupils is not uniform throughout the schools tested. The average growth by schools varies from practically nothing to almost the entire amount possible within the limits of the tests used. The Grinstead study²⁶ shows that this variability in growth bears a direct relation to the extent to which this objective has been kept in mind in the teaching of the Latin course. The studies²⁷ of Hamblen and Haskell, based on results secured in the Philadelphia controlled experiment

²⁶ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 9.

²⁷ A. A. Hamblen, "A Statistical Study to Determine the Amount of Automatic Transfer from a Study of Latin to a Knowledge of English Derivatives, and to Determine the Extent to which this Amount May Be Increased by Conscious Adaptation of Content and Method to the Attainment of this Objective," a doctor's dissertation at the University of Pennsylvania, 1924. See also R. I. Haskell, "A Statistical Study of the Comparative Results Produced by Teaching Derivation in the Ninth-Grade Latin Classroom and in the Ninth-Grade English Classroom to Non-Latin Pupils," a doctor's dissertation at the University of Pennsylvania, 1924. See also "The Philadelphia Controlled Experiment in Teaching English Derivatives from Latin," *School and Society*, XVI (July 8, 1922). See also Part II, Chapter II, Section 2.

in teaching English derivatives, show that by the conscious adaptation of material and method to the attainment of this objective a superior gain can be secured over that made by non-Latin pupils three times greater than is the case when no special effort is directed to the attainment of this objective. These studies show furthermore that the classes which made this superior growth in knowledge of English vocabulary also made higher scores in the Latin comprehension tests than did the classes which made no special effort to connect Latin with English.

Of the teachers who in the general questionnaire indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, 66% considered that results in their own schools were satisfactory.

4. *Increased ability to read English with correct understanding.*

The fullest development of this ability is of fundamental importance for every boy and girl. Increased ability to read English is obviously dependent in part upon growth in English vocabulary. The relationship between growth in English vocabulary and the study of Latin was pointed out in the discussion of the preceding objective. An important problem awaiting further study is the determination of the extent to which the various mental processes employed in learning to read Latin may be expected to increase the pupil's power to read English of increasing difficulty.

This objective was regarded as valid for the secondary course as a whole by 88% of the teachers who filled out the general questionnaire. In the score card the objective was ranked respectively sixth, fifth, third and fourth for the four years of the course.

The Thorndike studies,²⁸ based upon results of tests run

²⁸ E. L. Thorndike, "The Influence of First-Year Latin upon Ability to Read English," *School and Society*, XVII (February 10, 1923), pp. 165-168. See also Part II, Chapter I, Section 11.

with Latin and non-Latin pupils through a period of two years, show that Latin pupils made a slightly superior growth in the ability to read English over that made by non-Latin pupils of the same initial ability. In certain schools this superior growth of Latin pupils was very marked, and the relation between methods employed in these schools and superior results secured will be discussed in the chapter on method.

Of those teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 57% considered that the results secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

5. Increased ability to speak and write correct and effective English through training in adequate translation.

Since language is an instrument not only for the expression of thought but also for thinking itself, improved efficiency in the use of the mother tongue for these two interdependent functions is of unquestionable value to every pupil. Because of the synthetic character of the Latin language as contrasted with English and modern foreign languages and because of the relatively remote aspect of the ideas expressed in the material read in Latin when compared with those involved in the every-day activities with which English is commonly associated, we believe that the process of translating Latin into adequate English provides a peculiarly valuable instrument for developing the power of thinking and of expressing thought "by increasing the extent of vocabulary, by rendering vocabulary more precise and accurate as an intellectual instrument, and by aiding the development of the habit of interrelating words so as to facilitate consecutive thinking and consecutive thought."²⁹

This objective was regarded as valid for the secondary

²⁹ A. J. Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, pp. 472-473. See also the Report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

course as a whole by 90% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire. In the score card, where the definition of this objective included the development of the power of thinking as well as of expressing thought, it was ranked fifth for the first year, fourth for the second year, and first for the third and fourth years of the course.

Not enough schools participated in the English composition tests, which were planned as a part of the national testing programme, to provide data for determining the extent to which this objective is at present attained through the study of Latin. Objective studies are needed to determine the extent to which the various mental processes involved in translating Latin into English may be made to contribute to the attainment of this objective.

One important element in an increased ability to speak and write correct and effective English is the possession of an enlarged and refined vocabulary. The contribution which the study of Latin may make to a knowledge of English words derived from Latin has already been discussed. The Thorndike-Ruger studies³⁰ show that in the non-Latin words of the Carr test Latin pupils during the first and second semesters made no gain over the non-Latin pupils of the same initial ability, but that during the second year, when the translation of continuous discourse commonly becomes a prominent element in the study of Latin, the Latin pupils made a somewhat greater growth in their knowledge of non-Latin words than did non-Latin pupils of the same initial ability. The Thorndike studies based upon results of the Thorndike Test of Word Knowledge, which consists of words of less average difficulty than those in the Carr test, show

³⁰ E. L. Thorndike and G. J. Ruger, "The Effect of First-Year Latin upon Knowledge of English Words of Latin Derivation," *School and Society*, XVIII (September 1, 1923), pp. 260-270, and XVIII (October 6, 1923), pp. 417-418. See also Part II, Chapter I, Section 9.

that the Latin pupils made a slightly greater growth than that made by non-Latin pupils of the same initial ability, but that the difference in growth by semesters is too slight to warrant a conclusion as to the cause of the superiority.

In emphasizing the value of translation as a means of increasing the pupil's ability to speak and write English it is assumed that translation involves the expression in English of a thought already comprehended in Latin, and not a mere exchange of verbal symbols. The extent to which translation contributes to the attainment of this objective depends therefore not only upon comprehension of the thought in the Latin, but also upon the adequacy of the English employed in translating the thought comprehended.

Ninety-six per cent of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire expressed the opinion that pupils should be regularly required to translate prepared assignments into idiomatic English. Data are available to show the extent to which idiomatic English is actually secured in class-room translation of prepared assignments. In connection with the preparation of the Leonard translation scales³¹ written translations of passages from Caesar, Cicero and Vergil were secured from several thousand pupils. These translations were written in class with the aid of vocabulary and notes, after the passages had been assigned for outside preparation. Fully 46% of the 1,288 Caesar passages translated by fourth-semester pupils were rated by a jury of Latin teachers as below the standard of acceptability as English. In the Miller-Briggs study³² of class-room translations of Cicero it was found that 34% of the translations showed complete failure to comprehend the thought of the passage and that an addi-

³¹ S. A. Leonard, "Scales for Improving the Quality of Translation," Part II, Chapter IV, Section 7.

³² S. R. Miller and T. H. Briggs, "The Effect of Latin Translation on English," *School Review*, XXXI (December, 1923), pp. 756-762.

tional 40% fell below the standard of acceptable English. This showing is so poor that it is obvious that new methods of teaching which will cause improvement are highly desirable. It should be remembered, however, that the power of expression in English is very low among high school students generally. For example, the standard for eleventh-grade pupils on the Nassau English Composition Scale is only 7 out of a possible 26.

Of the teachers who in the general questionnaire indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, 42% considered that satisfactory results were being secured in their own schools. The need for raising the standard of class-room translation is evident, and recommendations to that end will be found in the chapters on content and method.

6. Increased ability to spell English words of Latin derivation.

The universal value of this ability is unquestioned. The Lawler study,³³ based on an analysis of 982,800 spellings made by seventh-, eighth- and ninth-grade pupils, shows that of the 2,977 different words in the list chosen, 49% are of Latin origin, and that approximately 70% of the misspellings occurring two or more times in these Latin-derived words are remediable through the study of Latin.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 88% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked respectively fourth, sixth, sixteenth and seventeenth for the first, second, third and fourth years of the course.

The Coxe study,³⁴ based on tests run with several thousand

³³ L. B. Lawler, "The Remediability of Errors in English Spelling through the Study of First-Year Latin," a doctor's dissertation at the State University of Iowa, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 6.

³⁴ W. W. Coxe, "The Influence of Latin on the Spelling of English Words," a doctor's dissertation at the Ohio State University, 1923 (Public School Publishing Co.). See also Part II, Chapter I, Section 13.

pupils through a period of one year, shows that first-year Latin pupils made a growth in ability to spell English words of Latin origin one and one-half times greater than that made by their non-Latin classmates of the same initial ability, and on the basis of results secured in the Columbus-Rochester controlled experiment in the teaching of English spelling, it also shows that by the use of methods consciously adapted to the attainment of this objective a gain can be secured three times greater than is the case when no special effort is directed to the attainment of this objective. This controlled experiment also shows that the study of Latin interferes slightly with the spelling of words of non-Latin origin, but that this interference may be eliminated by the use of proper methods.

Of those teachers who in the general questionnaire indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, 51% considered that satisfactory results were secured in their own schools.

7. Increased knowledge of the principles of English grammar and a consequently increased ability to speak and write grammatically correct English.

The high value of the ability to speak and write grammatically correct English is not questioned, but it is often questioned whether this ability is dependent upon knowledge of the principles of English grammar. The Kirby study,³⁵ based on the results of the Kirby English Grammar Test, shows that the coefficient of correlation between ability to choose the correct grammatical form and ability to choose the grammatical principle involved is .65. The Charters-Ullman study of 25,000 language errors shows that 22% of the errors made were due to failure to understand or to apply syntactical principles common to Latin and English, and

³⁵ T. J. Kirby, in a study not yet published.

that an additional 73% of these errors are of such a nature that they are remediable through the study of Latin.³⁶

This objective, so stated as to be susceptible to a somewhat broader interpretation, was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 97% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked first for the first and second years, eighth for the third year, and sixteenth for the fourth year.

The Thorndike study,³⁷ based on the results of tests run through a period of one year, shows that pupils who had studied Latin for two semesters made a growth both in ability to use the correct English form and in ability to state the principle governing the correct usage ten per cent greater than that made by their non-Latin classmates of the same initial ability. The Bates study,³⁸ based on the results of the Iowa controlled experiment, shows that Latin pupils made a greater gain than non-Latin pupils in a series of grammar tests, and that by a conscious adaptation of method to the attainment of this objective a gain can be secured more than double the gain resulting when no special effort is made to attain this objective.

Of the teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 72% considered that satisfactory results were being secured in their own schools. The difference between the judgment of teachers as to the degree of attainment of this objective and the conclusions drawn from the tests is due in part to the lack of definite standards of achievement and of satisfactory instruments for measuring growth of Latin pupils in this field, and in

³⁶ See Part II, Appendix E.

³⁷ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 12.

³⁸ F. Bates, "A Controlled Experiment in the Teaching of English Grammar through Latin," a master's dissertation at the State University of Iowa, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter II, Section 4.

part to the lack of definite material for class-room use in applying the principles of Latin grammar to the correction of grammatical errors in English speech.

8. *Increased ability to learn the technical and semi-technical terms of Latin origin employed in other school studies and in professions and vocations.*

The Scheck study³⁹ shows that of 10,435 pupils who entered high school in 1914, 1915, 1916 and 1917 and began the study of Latin, 22% studied physical geography during their high school course, 30% general science, 33% chemistry, 38% physics, 50% biology, 98% mathematics, 6% general history, 81% ancient history, 30% medieval history, 35% modern history, 55% American history and 27% various commercial subjects. The percentages of pupils who ultimately study certain of these subjects would be increased if information were available regarding the subjects they studied later in college.

The Enlow study⁴⁰ of the technical and semi-technical words occurring in the most commonly used text-books in general science, biology, physics and chemistry shows that 49.7% of these words are of Latin origin and 38.8% are of Greek origin, or 88.5% in all.

The Pressey study⁴¹ of the vocabularies of commonly used high school text-books in mathematics, the sciences, history and the languages shows that of the words presumably unfamiliar (including technical and semi-technical terms) over 50% are of Latin origin.

³⁹ C. C. Scheck, "The Validity of Certain Objectives in the Teaching of Latin," a master's dissertation at the University of Rochester, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 11.

⁴⁰ G. L. Enlow, "An Analysis of the Technical and Semi-Technical Vocabularies of High School Text-Books," a master's dissertation at the State University of Iowa, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 5.

⁴¹ L. C. Pressey, *The Vocabularies of High School Subjects*, Public School Publishing Co., 1924. See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 5.

This objective was regarded as valid for the secondary course as a whole by 81% of the teachers who answered the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked respectively eleventh, thirteenth, eighteenth and nineteenth for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 44% considered that satisfactory results were being secured in their own schools. The bearing of this objective upon the distribution of emphasis in the teaching of Latin vocabulary will be discussed in the chapters on content and method.

9. Increased ability to learn other foreign languages.

The Scheek study shows that of 10,455 pupils who entered high school in 1914, 1915, 1916 and 1917 and began the study of Latin, 42% studied French, 13% Spanish, and 26% German during their high school course. Other available data indicate that the great decrease in the study of German during the war was accompanied by a corresponding increase in the study of French and Spanish. Furthermore, if information were available concerning the number of the pupils who ultimately began the study of one or more of these languages in college, these percentages would be somewhat increased.

While the most important single element common to Latin and French is found in vocabulary, the McGorey study⁴² shows that many principles and details of Latin grammar apply also to French.

This objective was considered valid for the course as a whole by 91% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire. In the score card it was ranked respectively eighth, tenth, twelfth, and thirteenth for the four years of the course.

The Henmon study,⁴³ based on tests in vocabulary and sentence translation, run with several thousand Latin and non-

⁴² See Part II, Chapter II, Section 6, and Appendix D.

⁴³ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 15.

Latin pupils at the end of their first year of French, shows that when the scores of Latin and non-Latin pupils are compared without reference to the general ability of the two groups the average score of Latin pupils is markedly higher, but that when Latin pupils are compared with non-Latin pupils on the basis of equal general scholarship the larger part of the superiority of the Latin pupils disappears. The superiority remaining, though measurable, is small, amounting in the vocabulary test of 50 words to .56 words for two-semester Latin pupils, increasing to 2.10 words for four-semester Latin pupils and to 4.58 words for six-semester Latin pupils. In the translation test consisting of twelve sentences the superiority of Latin pupils on a paired basis is .41 sentences for two-semester Latin pupils, and .40 sentences for four-semester Latin pupils, increasing to 1.03 sentences for six-semester Latin pupils. The results of tests run with the same pupils at the end of their second year of French, show that the superiority of Latin pupils observable at the end of the first year of French is not apparent at the end of the second year.

The Kirby study,⁴⁴ based on the records of students at the State University of Iowa, shows that under present conditions of teaching Latin and French the student's chances of success in first year French in college are slightly increased in proportion to the number of years he has studied Latin in school. The Hill study, made under the direction of Professor Kirby and with his full approval, shows that "Latin pursued in the high school has a significant positive cor-

⁴⁴T. I. Kirby, "Latin as a Preparation for French," *School and Society*, XVIII (November 10, 1923), pp. 553-559. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 12. J. L. Hill, "The Relation of the Amount of Latin Pursued in High School to Success in First-Semester French in the University of Iowa," a master's dissertation, 1924. I. F. Heald, "Relation between the Study of Latin in High School and First-Year College French," a master's dissertation at the University of Iowa, 1923.

relation with success in first-semester French in the University of Iowa." This is specially notable in the case of students who offered three or four years, instead of two years, of Latin for college entrance. The sum of the author's conclusions is that "the correlation between intelligence and grades in French was very little greater than the correlation between study in Latin and grades in French. This means that, given the intelligence necessary for college entrance, Latin study is about as important a factor for success in French as superior intelligence" is.⁴⁴ The general results of the Hill study confirm the results found in the Heald study.⁴⁴ The Cole study,⁴⁵ based on the records of students at Oberlin College, shows that the student's chances of success in first-year French or Spanish in college are slightly increased in proportion to the number of years he has studied Latin in school. The results of the Cleveland controlled experiment⁴⁶ show that by better correlation in the teaching of Latin and French in school the amount of Latin-French transfer can be very greatly increased.⁴⁷ Much of the responsibility for using advantageously the correlation between Latin and the Romance languages rests upon teachers of the latter languages. Romance text-books and methods which take into account the fact that many students of these languages have previously studied Latin naturally lead to richer results.

Of the teachers who in the general questionnaire indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, 77% considered that satisfactory results were being secured in their own schools. Here it seems probable that the judgment of the teachers is too favorable.

⁴⁴ L. E. Cole, "Latin as a Preparation for French and Spanish," *School and Society*, XIX (May 24, 1924), pp. 618-622. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 12.

⁴⁶ See Part II, Chapter II, Section 6.

⁴⁷ See also Table II, p. 244.

II. *Disciplinary Objectives*

In the foregoing analyses of the instrumental and application objectives we were able in most cases to secure objective data as to their educational value, if attained, and to measure the extent to which they were being attained. This was possible because of the greater tangibility of these objectives as compared with the disciplinary and cultural objectives and because of their correspondingly greater susceptibility to statistical treatment.

The factors involved in experiments and measurements dealing with disciplinary objectives⁴⁸ are so numerous and so complicated that in the present state of development of experimental technique it was found impossible to secure the coöperation necessary to carry out conclusive scientific studies in this field within the time limits set for the investigation. Accordingly the evaluation of the disciplinary objectives has been limited mainly to an analysis of opinions secured from recognized authorities in the fields of education and psychology and from experienced teachers of Latin. Use has also been made of the results of other investigations in this field.

1. *The development of certain desirable habits and ideals which are subject to spread, such as habits of sustained attention, orderly procedure, overcoming obstacles, perseverance; ideals of achievement, accuracy and thoroughness; and the cultivation of certain general attitudes such as dissatisfaction with failure or with partial success.*

It is obvious that the development of these mental traits

⁴⁸ The problem of transfer, so far as it is related to the carry-over of content-elements common to the linguistic experiences of the pupils, has already been discussed in connection with the application objectives in the attainment of which such transfer is involved. The disciplinary objectives here discussed are concerned not with the carry-over of common content-elements, but with the transfer of general habits, ideals and attitudes.

is not the province of Latin alone, but should be sought in every subject in the curriculum. This fact, however, does not absolve teachers of Latin from the responsibility of so organizing the content and method of the Latin course that the study of Latin shall make its greatest possible contribution to the attainment of this common objective.

If these mental traits can be developed through the study of Latin and if their spread to other situations and experiences can be effected, then the importance of this objective for all pupils who are studying Latin is evident. Practically all the psychologists who contributed to the symposium on disciplinary objectives in the study of Latin expressed the opinion that these traits, if developed in the study of Latin, are subject to spread.⁴⁹ This indicates a very marked change in the opinion of psychologists during the last twenty years. The majority of these psychologists expressed the opinion that the transfer of these mental traits to other fields is automatic only to a slight extent, if at all.⁵⁰

⁴⁹ The question was as follows: "Do you consider that these traits, if developed in the study of Latin, are subject to spread in fields outside of Latin?" Of the sixty-two psychologists answering this question, thirty-eight answered unqualifiedly in the affirmative; fourteen express the view that transfer occurs under definite conditions and to a limited extent; five believe that the transfer is very slight; two do not believe that any transfer takes place; while three are doubtful. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 4. See also "The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education," p. 98, where it is shown that 87 per cent of the psychologists answering the questionnaire sent out by the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements expressed the opinion that transfer of training is an established fact.

⁵⁰ The form of the question was: "To what extent and amount is this spread in your judgment automatic, i.e., occurring without conscious adaptation of content and method to this end?" Of the fifty-nine psychologists answering this question thirty-three express the opinion that no automatic transfer occurs at all or that it is slight or negligible; one believes that transfer is at first conscious and tends to become automatic; three believe that automatic transfer occurs only to the extent to which common elements are present or when the applications are so nearly iden-

Practically all these psychologists, including those who believe that there is some automatic transfer, are agreed that the extent and amount of this transfer can be increased in proportion to the extent to which favorable conditions as to method are provided.⁵¹ Of these over 70% expressed the view that conscious generalization is essential or desirable.⁵² This means that to guarantee a considerable transfer the common element to be transferred must be brought specifically to the pupil's attention and generalized into a principle, and the application of the principle to other fields made clear. The standard set for the preparation of the regular Latin work should then be set up as an end worth striving for, not only in Latin but in all subjects. "The real problem of transfer is a problem of so organizing the method of training that it will carry over in the minds of the students to other fields."⁵³

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 93% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked respectively second, first, second and fifth for the four years of the course.

tical that they are matters of course; three believe that the amount of spread is dependent upon the teacher or pupil; five are doubtful; five believe that transfer is to some extent automatic; four that there is considerable automatic transfer and five that transfer is largely or almost entirely automatic. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 4.

⁵¹ The form of question was: "Can the extent and amount of this spread be increased by providing more favorable conditions as to method?" Of the fifty-nine psychologists answering this question fifty-seven replied in the affirmative and two in the negative. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 4.

⁵² The form of the question was: "What methods would in your judgment provide the conditions most favorable to the development of these mental traits? Is it essential, for example, that a particular trait be consciously generalized?" Of the fifty-six psychologists answering this question, forty answered the last half of the question in the affirmative. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 4.

⁵³ C. H. Judd in *The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education*, p. 99.

It is evident, however, that habits, ideals and attitudes will not be transferred unless they are actually developed in the original training. The Brueckner study,⁵⁴ based upon the results of tests given throughout the country, shows wide variability in the extent to which these mental traits have been exemplified in the mastering of Latin itself. The Crathorne study^{54a} shows that the correlation in the marks secured by pupils in sequential courses in Latin is higher than in the case of any other sequential high school subject. This means that successive courses in Latin exhibit a very close inner relationship and therefore are more effective for the cumulative development of habits essential to the successful study of Latin. A supplementary study⁵⁵ by Crathorne shows, furthermore, that there is a higher correlation between marks in first-year Latin and marks in other subjects in the three years following than is true of any other first-year subject. Experimental studies are needed to determine whether this relatively close relation between the study of first-year Latin and the study of succeeding subjects is due to the presence of common content-elements, to a transfer of general habits acquired through the study of Latin, to the fact that Latin selects pupils of a higher average ability, or to two or all of these factors working together.

Of those teachers who in the general questionnaire indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, 56% considered that results being secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

⁵⁴ L. J. Brueckner, "The Status of Certain Basic Latin Skills," *Journal of Educational Research*, IX (May, 1924), pp. 390-402.

^{54a} A. R. Crathorne, "The Theory of Correlation Applied to School Grades," in *The Reorganization of Mathematics in Secondary Education*, pp. 105-128.

⁵⁵ See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 18.

2. *Development of the habit of discovering identical elements in different situations and experiences, and of making true generalizations.*

The study of Latin offers peculiarly favorable conditions for the development of this habit because of the numerous contacts it affords with the other linguistic experiences of the pupil, as was pointed out in the analyses of the instrumental and application objectives. The development of this general habit is the function of the specific training in recognizing and utilizing the elements common to Latin and to the various linguistic experiences with which the application objectives are concerned.

Even more important than the direct specific gain from the application to other fields of facts and methods of procedure acquired in Latin is the development of the general habit of recognizing identical elements in diverse experiences, singling them out and making true generalizations. When this habit has been consciously developed it constitutes the common element that will be found in many situations and experiences outside the particular fields in which the pupil has been given specific training in recognizing and relating common content-elements. Unless this general habit is developed, the specific transfers, while eminently valuable in themselves, will naturally be limited in operation to those fields within which they were originally developed. Furthermore, the development of such a general habit gives unity, coherence and an ultimate common goal to the various types of application discussed above. Suggestions will be given in the chapter on method for developing in the pupils this general habit in connection with the study of vocabulary, syntax, forms and the comprehension and translation of the Latin sentence.

3. *The development of correct habits of reflective thinking applicable to the mastery of other subjects of study and to the solution of analogous problems in daily life.*

Reflective thinking may be defined as that mental operation in which present facts suggest other facts in such a way as to induce belief in the latter on the basis of the former.⁵⁶ It includes the observation of pertinent facts, suspense of judgment pending examination of the facts, comparison of the facts observed to discover significant relations, the relating of cause and effect, the making of a final inference or judgment, and the use of a conclusion thus reached in the solution of analogous problems. Everyone has constant need of drawing such inferences; for the reasoning process involved is essentially the same, whether it concerns a carefully worked out scientific experiment or the ordinary affairs of daily life. If Latin is so taught that the drawing of such inferences becomes an integral part of the pupil's method of study and is so taught that the habit thus established carries over into fields outside of Latin, it is obvious that this objective becomes of vital importance to every Latin pupil. The most noteworthy recent study in this field is that of Thorndike. This study,⁵⁷ based on results of a test in certain aspects of relational thinking given to several thousand tenth-grade pupils, shows that the amount of growth produced by certain school subjects in the ability measured by this test varies so slightly that no definite conclusions can be drawn therefrom.

The answers of teachers to questions in that section of the general questionnaire which is devoted to methods⁵⁸ reveal a practically unanimous opinion that the methods commonly

⁵⁶ Dewey, *How We Think*, p. 8.

⁵⁷ E. L. Thorndike, "Mental Discipline in High School Studies," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XV (January, 1924), pp. 1-22; *ibid.*, XV (February, 1924), pp. 83-98.

⁵⁸ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

used at present in studying the various elements of Latin should be so modified as to meet the two conditions stated above. It is a significant fact that methods recommended by teachers in the general questionnaire as most valuable for the study of vocabulary, syntax, forms and the comprehension and translation of the Latin sentence for the sake of progress in Latin itself are precisely those which involve the drawing of such inferences, and which were accordingly recommended by the teachers as most likely to lead to the attainment of this objective.

This objective was regarded as valid for the secondary course as a whole by 91% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire. In the score card, where this objective had been so stated as to have a more limited scope, it was ranked respectively tenth, ninth, sixth and eighth for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, 51% considered that results in their own schools were satisfactory.

4. *Increased ability to make formal logical analyses.*

The term logical is here used in its stricter sense, referring only to that which follows necessarily from premises which are definite in meaning and which have been previously assumed or proved to be true.

It is clear from evidence furnished by the general questionnaire and the pupil's question-blank that teachers of Latin at present give much time to syntactical analysis in connection with translation and prose composition, and that to a large extent this practice is directed to the attainment of this objective. The process of classifying grammatical constructions and referring them to rules is in essence a deductive syllogism, and it furnishes a type of training analogous to that received in the study of formal logic. It is also more concrete and consequently more comprehensible by younger

minds. It therefore has a use more readily recognizable and more applicable than they would find in abstract deductive logic, which is not suited to their early stage of development. These first dawns of logical reasoning may be trusted to develop of themselves under good teaching of Latin, but we are of the opinion that ability to make formal logical analyses is not a suitable conscious objective of the school course in Latin.

The extent to which syntactical analysis is justified by the direct or indirect assistance which it affords the pupil in solving actual difficulties in comprehending the thought of a Latin sentence will be discussed in the chapter on method.

III. *Cultural Objectives*

By cultural objectives are meant those concerned with increasing the pupil's fund of information, developing his capacity for appreciation, extending his intellectual horizon, and broadening his sympathies by direct contact, through the study of their language and literature, with the mind of a people remote in time and place.

1. *Development of an historical perspective and of a general cultural background through an increased knowledge of facts relating to the life, history, institutions, mythology and religion of the Romans; an increased appreciation of the influence of their civilization on the course of western civilization; and a broader understanding of social and political problems of today.*

It is generally agreed that the solution of present-day social, political and economic problems will be aided by an intelligent knowledge of the experience of the race, and that some knowledge of the early history of our civilization is a desirable element in the training for intelligent American citizenship. The unique value of Roman history for this purpose is due not only to the immense direct contribution which

Roman civilization has made to our modern world, but also to the fact that through Rome we have received rich inheritances from other and older civilizations.⁵⁹

We believe that the best key to a direct and intimate understanding of the Romans and of their civilization is a first-hand contact with their language and literature. A pupil who has learned to comprehend the thought of a Latin sentence in the original has to that extent thought as a Roman and has come into direct contact with the genius of the Roman mind in the medium which is the most perfect embodiment of that genius, the Latin language.⁶⁰

⁵⁹"Ancient history is the key to all history, not to political history only, but to the record also of the changing thoughts and beliefs of races and peoples." James Bryce, *Fortnightly Review*, Vol. 107 (April, 1917), p. 562.

"We are learning that European history, from its first glimmerings to our own day, is one unbroken drama, no part of which can be rightly understood without reference to the other parts which come before and after it. We are learning that of this great drama Rome is the centre, the point to which all roads lead, and from which all roads lead no less. It is the vast lake in which all the streams of earlier history lose themselves, and from which all the streams of later history flow forth again." E. A. Freeman, *Comparative Politics: The Unity of History* (London, 1874), p. 306.

"It is just because here (i.e., in antiquity) the development has come to an end, because ancient history is finished and gone, and lies before our eye complete and entire, that we may put questions to it and derive lessons from it such as are possible in no other part of history." Eduard Meyer, *Kleine Schriften* (Halle, 1910), p. 217.

⁶⁰"The study of Latin is a genuine speech experience; and this is primarily a form of participation in the social inheritance. As reading English is sharing the experience of those who speak and write English so reading Latin is sharing the experience of those who spoke and wrote Latin. At the beginning, it is true, the pupil's activity is based largely on a play interest coupled with curiosity as to the meaning of the new words and as to the novel structure of the strange tongue. This language-interest should from the first be joined with a study of other aspects of Roman life. As control over the language grows, the pupil's interest should be increasingly directed to the larger meaning of what he reads. With an appreciation of this comes an expansion of intellectual and emotional life. The pupil may enter, at least in some measure, into the spirit of the great people whose literature he reads. According to his ability and opportunity

We further believe that if the reading content of the Latin course is organized with this objective clearly in view, a sufficiently close contact may be established with important social and political aspects of Roman life to insure an appreciable contribution to the pupil's fund of actual knowledge, and to give him a point of view and an interest which will result both in a more extensive reading in English concerning Roman life and history and in a more intelligent appreciation of the significance of what he reads. The study of Latin and of Roman history should therefore be kept in close relation to each other.

This objective was regarded as valid for the secondary course as a whole by 94% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked respectively twelfth, eighth, fifth and seventh for the four years of the course.

We were able in the testing programme to examine only a small portion of the field included in this objective. The results of a test in classical references and allusions will be discussed in connection with the analysis of the next objective. The two other tests concerned with this objective were limited in their scope to the content and some of the historical implications of the authors commonly read in the second and third years of the course.

The results of the Davis-Hicks true-false test,⁶¹ run with Latin and non-Latin pupils who were completing their third year's work in high school without having studied ancient history, show a marked superiority of three-year Latin pupils over non-Latin pupils of the same general scholastic ability

he may be a partaker in the heritage that this people has bequeathed." From the Report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association for the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

⁶¹ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 16.

in their knowledge of outstanding historical facts connected with the content and background of Caesar's Gallic War and of the orations of Cicero commonly read. The superiority of two-year Latin pupils over non-Latin pupils in that section of the test concerned with the content and background of Caesar's Gallic War was somewhat less marked. The degree of attainment of the three-year and two-year Latin pupils as compared with the non-Latin pupils of the same general scholastic ability was found to be nearly the same in the case of those third-year high school pupils who had studied ancient history. Results of the Davis-Hicks test⁶² on the content and background of Caesar's Gallic War, run with Latin and non-Latin pupils who were completing their second year in high school, show an average superiority on the part of two-year Latin pupils over non-Latin pupils, although this superiority is very slight in those portions of the test concerned with the larger historical implications of the text. A study of the methods used in teaching the various classes tested shows a close relation between the amount of emphasis placed on the historical content and background of the text read and the class median scores.

The Hicks study,⁶³ based upon the Pittsburgh controlled experiment, shows that with a more discriminating emphasis upon the important historical implications of the text read a much better grasp of the historical content and background can be secured than was found to be the case in the country as a whole.

Of those teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 41% considered that satisfactory results were being secured in their

⁶² See Part II, Chapter I, Section 17.

⁶³ E. E. Hicks, "Controlled Experiment in the Teaching of the Historical Content and Background of Caesar's Gallic War," a doctor's dissertation at the University of Pittsburgh. See also Part II, Chapter I, section 17.

own schools. There is evident need of better adaptation of the content and methods to the attainment of this objective, and recommendations to that end will be found in Chapters IV and V.

2. Increased ability to understand and appreciate references and allusions to the mythology, traditions and history of the Greeks and Romans.

The studies⁶⁴ of King and Bunyan, based on an examination of the reading material found in books commonly read by high school pupils and in contemporary magazines and newspapers, show that pupils who progress beyond the most elementary stage in their reading will encounter many references and allusions of this sort. In the material examined there were found 5,242 definite references to characters, places, events and ideas connected with the history, mythology and life of the Greeks and Romans.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 94% of the teachers who answered the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked respectively thirteenth, fifteenth, fourteenth and second for the four years of the course. The Clark study,⁶⁵ based upon the results of 4,000 tests run with Latin and non-Latin pupils at the end of the eighth, ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth grades, shows that from the end of the eighth to the end of the ninth grade and from the end of the ninth to the end of the tenth grade the median of the Latin pupils rose less than the median of the non-Latin pupils, but that from the end of the

⁶⁴ R. B. King, "Classical Allusions in Certain Newspapers and Magazines," a master's dissertation at the University of Wisconsin, 1922; and M. F. Bunyan, "Classical Allusions in the English Reading of High School Pupils," a master's dissertation at the University of Wisconsin, 1922. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 9.

⁶⁵ G. W. Clark, "The Relative Ability of Latin over Non-Latin Pupils to Explain Classical References," a master's dissertation at the State University of Iowa, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter I, Section 18.

tenth to the end of the twelfth grade the median of Latin pupils rose 37% while that of the non-Latin pupils fell 8%. The significance of the fact that Latin pupils make so little growth in this ability during the first two years, though making so large a gain in the last two years, will be discussed in the chapter on content.

Of the teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 61% considered that satisfactory results were being secured in their own schools.

3. The development of right attitudes toward social situations.

It will be agreed that the characteristic Roman virtues, such as patriotism, honor and self-sacrifice, reveal standards which should be kept before American boys and girls today. We believe that these make a more real and vivid appeal to the pupils when they are presented in their original utterance, that is, in the language of the characters whose virtues are described. The development of such attitudes through the study of Latin is largely contingent upon the use and sympathetic interpretation throughout the course of appropriate reading material illustrating these traits.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 71% of the teachers who answered the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked respectively sixteenth, seventeenth, eleventh and eleventh for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who indicated that they regarded this objective as valid, only 25% were of opinion that the results being secured in their own schools were satisfactory. It is clear that marked improvement is needed here.

4. A better acquaintance through the study of their writings with some of the chief personal characteristics of the authors read.

The validity of this objective depends upon the historical and literary importance of the authors selected for reading, upon the extent to which the characters of the authors are revealed through selections chosen, and upon the extent to which a more intimate acquaintance is obtained through reading their works in the language in which they were written than is obtained through reading them in translations. This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 74% of the teachers who answered the questionnaire. In the score card it was ranked respectively nineteenth, eleventh, ninth and twelfth for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 55% were of opinion that results secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

5. *The development of an appreciation of the literary qualities in the Latin authors read and development of a capacity for such appreciation in the literature of other languages.*

The development of literary appreciation during the secondary school period through direct contact with outstanding works of literature, whether in English or in foreign languages, is obviously a desirable objective. The extent to which this objective is valid for Latin is contingent upon the extent to which pupils are able to secure a truer appreciation of the aesthetic qualities of the authors read through the original than is possible through translations. From a literary and artistic point of view it will scarcely be disputed that there is very rarely such a thing as an adequate translation of a literary masterpiece. "In its happiest efforts translation is but an approximation and its efforts are not always happy."⁶⁶ A full appreciation of the literary qualities of Vergil's Aeneid, for example, is to be developed, if at all, through

⁶⁶ G. H. Lewes, *Life of Goethe*, Vol. II, p. 229.

direct contact with the poem in the language in which it is written. The practical question here involved is to what extent secondary school pupils through a reading of the *Aeneid* in the original can develop a capacity for appreciating the metrical and other aesthetic qualities of the poem. Evidence of the development of this capacity may be limited for the ordinary young pupil to an increased ability to recognize the losses involved in the translation of a passage of Latin into English, whether that translation is his own or another's, to distinguish between degrees of inadequacy in such translations, and to respond to a particularly happy rendering.

The Brown scales,⁶⁷ analogous to the Abbott-Trabue scales,⁶⁸ have been prepared for the purpose of testing the effect of a year's study of Vergil upon the development of general literary appreciation. These scales could not be completed in time for use in the investigation. They will be available, however, for teachers who are interested in measuring the attainment of this objective in their own classes.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 67% of the teachers who answered the general questionnaire. In the score card it was ranked respectively eighteenth, sixteenth, seventh and second for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 26% considered that results secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

The Hahn study,⁶⁹ made as a preliminary step to the construction of the scales mentioned above, shows that 92% of

⁶⁷ E. Brown, *Scales for Measuring Growth in the Appreciation of English Poetry through the Study of Vergil*. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 19.

⁶⁸ A. Abbott and M. R. Trabue, *A Measurement of Ability to Judge Poetry*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College.

⁶⁹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

the teachers of Vergil whose opinions were secured considered this objective valid in the teaching of Vergil. Of these teachers 20% were satisfied with the results secured in their own schools. The two chief reasons given for the failure to secure satisfactory results were "lack of time" and "lack of cultural background on the part of the pupils." The Uhl study⁷⁰ shows that at the present time fourth-year Latin requires of the pupils more time for study than is required by any other subject in any year of the secondary course. The significance of these facts will be discussed in the chapter on content.

6. *A greater appreciation of the elements of literary technique employed in prose and verse.*

The cultivation of this appreciation through the study of Latin will depend upon the extent to which the pupil can be brought to recognize the use Latin authors make of literary technique in securing artistic effects and to attempt to secure similar effects in his translation of these authors. This involves the acquisition of some detailed knowledge of the elements which constitute this technique, such as diction, rhythm and figures of speech.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 42% of the teachers who answered the general questionnaire. In the score card this objective was ranked respectively seventeenth, nineteenth, twelfth and ninth for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 26% considered that results being secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

7. *Improvement in the literary quality of the pupil's written English.*

This objective is closely connected with the two objectives

⁷⁰ W. L. Uhl, "How Much Time for Latin?", *The Classical Journal*, XIX (January, 1924), pp. 215-221. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 14.

last discussed. The cultivation of this ability through the study of Latin will depend upon the extent to which pupils in their oral and written translation recognize and employ the elements of literary style mentioned above and seek to secure similar effects in their own writing.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 64% of the teachers who answered the general questionnaire. In the score card it was ranked respectively fourteenth, fourteenth, tenth and tenth for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who regarded this objective as valid, 25% considered that results secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

8. *An elementary knowledge of the simpler general principles of language structure.*

Some knowledge of the simpler general principles of language structure as exhibited in the Indo-European languages and some appreciation of the universality of grammatical ideas have educational value, apart from any immediately practical application of these principles to the learning of a foreign language or to a better understanding of English. The study of Latin grammar for the mastery of Latin itself, because of the fact that difference of function is regularly indicated in Latin by difference in form and the relation of form and function is thereby made clear, provides a peculiarly valuable basis for developing an appreciation of the extent to which all the languages commonly studied exhibit a fundamental unity of structure. The extent to which the study of Latin grammar actually contributes to a knowledge of general language structure depends upon the extent to which pupils form the habit of recognizing the identity of grammatical principles common to Latin and English and of recognizing these same principles when they appear in the study of other languages. Every such identification furnishes

a fresh object lesson in the historical relationship of Indo-European peoples. Furthermore, grammatical ideas when viewed in their universal aspect furnish tangible evidence of the ultimate unity of the human race. The extent to which pupils gain this conception through Latin depends upon the extent to which stress is laid in the teaching of Latin grammar upon the logical and therefore universal character of grammatical ideas.

This objective was regarded as valid for the course as a whole by 51% of the teachers who answered the general questionnaire. In the score card it was ranked respectively seventh, seventh, sixteenth and seventeenth for the four years of the course.

Of those teachers who indicated in the general questionnaire that they regarded this objective as valid, 40% considered that results secured in their own schools were satisfactory.

Section 4. An Analysis of the Opinions of Present and Former Students of Latin as to Certain Values Arising from the Study of Latin

The data employed in the evaluation of objectives in the preceding section included analyses of opinions expressed by teachers of Latin, education and psychology. Additional data have been secured bearing on the evaluation of certain of these objectives through the use of questionnaires sent to present and former students of Latin as follows:

1. To fourth-year secondary school pupils who were completing their fourth year of Latin.
2. To college freshmen who had completed four years of Latin in school and were continuing the subject in college.
3. To college graduates who replied to the O'Shea questionnaire, and who had studied Latin for from one to eight years in school and college.

In these questionnaires technical phases of the discussion

were avoided and those addressed were asked simply to indicate the values which they believed they had secured from their study of Latin.

The Grise study,⁷¹ based upon the answers returned by 3,600 fourth-year high school pupils, contains a list of all the reasons assigned by these pupils for having continued the study of Latin for four years. In so far as the reasons here given relate to educational values they are also significant for the evaluation of the objectives concerned. The following list includes the reasons given by the pupils as being chiefly responsible for their continuing the study of Latin for four years and the percentage of pupils who gave each of these reasons:

I had to have Latin for college entrance.....	47%
I found Latin helped in English.....	47%
Especially in vocabulary.....	29%
“ “ grammar	16%
“ “ literature	2%
I believed that the study furnished good mental training	47%
I believed four years' study of the same subject a good thing	36%
I liked Latin	36%
Especially Vergil	23%
“ Cicero	6%
“ Caesar	4%
I found it helped in the study of other languages...	33%
Especially in French	21%
“ “ Spanish	11%
Teachers or principal advised it	22%
I found it helped in acquiring good habits of study	21%

⁷¹ F. C. Grise, "Content and Method in High School Latin," a doctor's dissertation at the George Peabody College for Teachers, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

Parents or guardian insisted	19%
Latin was easier than some other subjects	16%
I had to have it for graduation from school	12%
My special friends were taking Latin	9%
I expected to teach Latin	6%
Latin was my easiest subject	4%
Other reasons	5%

The pupils were also asked to give the chief reasons why some of their friends who began the study of Latin with them had not continued the subject. The four chief reasons given were:

They found Latin too difficult	55%
They did not like Latin	24%
Latin took too much time	18%
They considered Latin of little or no value	14%

In the Swan study,⁷² based upon answers returned by 505 college freshmen from 24 colleges who were studying Latin for the fifth year, the reasons given and percentages are as follows:

I liked Latin	57%
Especially Vergil	35%
" Cicero	7%
" Caesar	3%
I found it helpful in English	48%
Especially in vocabulary	24%
" " grammar	10%
" " literature	3%
" " spelling	2%
" " rhetoric	1%

I had to have it for college entrance	45%
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⁷² R. Swan, "Content and Method in High School Latin," a master's dissertation at Indiana University, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

I found it helped me in the study of other languages	40%
Especially in French	26%
“ “ Spanish	8%
“ “ Greek	2%
“ “ German	2%

I expected to teach Latin	27%
Teachers or principal advised it	24%
Latin was easier for me than some other subjects	24%
Parents or guardian insisted	21%
I had to have it for graduation from school	11%

The four chief reasons given as responsible for the fact that some of their friends who began the study of Latin with them had not continued the subject were:

They found Latin too difficult	70%
They thought Latin not practical	27%
Latin took too much time	24%
They did not like Latin	20%

The college graduates to whom the special questionnaire was sent were asked to indicate those values which they believed they had actually secured from the study of high school Latin. There were 763 replies received. The values indicated and the percentages of those noting each of these values are:

Value for the understanding and use of English words derived from Latin	93%
Value for the understanding of Latin words, phrases, abbreviations and quotations occurring in English	88%
Value for the development of an historical perspective and of a cultural background resulting from a knowledge of the facts relating to the life, literature, history, institutions, mythology and religion of the Romans	65%

Value for learning other foreign languages	64%
Value for an understanding of English grammar, and of language structure in general	63%
Value for the spelling of English words derived from Latin	60%
Value for general discipline resulting from the culti- vation of habits of accuracy, thoroughness, orderly procedure, perseverance and achievement	55%
Value for the understanding and use of actual Latin and of technical terms derived from Latin employed in the professions and vocations	48%
Value for speaking and writing correct and effective English	47%
Value for reading English of more than ordinary difficulty	42%
Value for general discipline resulting from training in logical analysis, in reflective thinking, and in the formation of correct judgments	36%
Value for the appreciation of literary form and style in the Latin authors read, and in the literature of other languages, including English	35%

Those filling out the questionnaire were also asked to indicate those values which had proved especially important in their own experience. The seven values receiving the highest number of votes are in order:

Value for the understanding and use of English words derived from Latin.

Value for an understanding of English grammar, and of language structure in general.

Value for the understanding of Latin words, phrases, abbreviations and quotations occurring in English.

Value for the development of an historical perspective and

of a general cultural background resulting from a knowledge of the facts relating to the life, literature, history, institutions, mythology and religion of the Romans.

Value for learning other foreign languages.

Value for general discipline resulting from the cultivation of habits of accuracy, thoroughness, orderly procedure, perseverance and achievement.

Value for the understanding and use of actual Latin and of technical terms derived from Latin employed in the professions and vocations.

Those filling out the questionnaire were also asked to answer the question: "If you had a son or daughter entering high school next year, would you advise him or her to take up the study of Latin?" The answers given and the percentages are as follows:

Yes	83%
Qualified yes	3%
No	7%
Qualified no	2%
No answer	5%

Those filling out this questionnaire were asked to comment freely on any changes in the teaching of high school Latin which they believed would make the course more valuable in any of the ways listed. The changes suggested are analyzed in the chapter on method.

Section 5. The Relative Emphasis To Be Attached Year by Year to All Objectives Determined upon as Valid

On the basis of the evidence presented in the preceding section, it is our opinion that most of the ultimate objectives examined are valid for all or a large proportion of the pupils who study Latin. Certain of the objectives are in the nature of the case valid only in the later years of the course and

two of the objectives are in our opinion not valid for the secondary course.⁷³ It is evident that the relative emphasis to be placed on the different objectives regarded as valid will vary in successive years of the school course.

For practical purposes it has seemed desirable at this stage of our inquiry to present in simpler and more compact form a list of all the objectives, immediate and ultimate, which we consider valid for the secondary course as a whole. Accordingly related specific objectives have been combined into more general objectives. The list thus simplified follows:

1. Increased ability to read and understand Latin (Primary Immediate Objective).
2. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin (Instrumental and Application Objectives 2, 3, 6, 7 and 8).
3. Increased ability to read, speak and write English (Instrumental and Application Objectives 4 and 5).
4. Increased ability to learn other foreign languages (Instrumental and Application Objective 9).
5. Development of correct mental habits (Disciplinary Objectives 1, 2 and 3).
6. Development of an historical and cultural background (Cultural Objectives 1, 2 and 4).
7. Development of right attitudes toward social situations (Cultural Objective 3).
8. Development of literary appreciation (Cultural Objectives 5 and 6).
9. Elementary knowledge of the simpler general principles of language structure (Cultural Objective 8).

⁷³ As may be noted in the previous pages, the ultimate objectives we do not consider valid for the secondary course are:

1. Ability to read new Latin after the study of the language in school or college has ceased.
2. Increased ability to make formal logical analyses.

10. Improvement in the literary quality of the pupil's written English (Cultural Objective 7).

THE FOUR-YEAR COURSE

I. Immediate Objective

The indispensable primary immediate objective which underlies the entire process for each year of the course is progressive development of power to read and understand Latin. This involves an increasing mastery of the elements of the language, namely, vocabulary, forms and syntax. The relative emphasis to be attached to these elements year by year will depend upon the contribution which they may make to the ability to read and understand Latin or to the attainment of certain of the ultimate objectives. The application of this principle will be discussed in detail in the chapters on content and method.

II. Ultimate Objectives

The following lists give the ultimate objectives we regard as valid for each successive year of the four-year course. The relative emphasis ordinarily to be attached to these ultimate objectives is indicated by the order in which they are given.

First Year.

1. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin.
2. Increased ability to read, speak and write English.
3. Development of an historical and cultural background.
4. Development of correct mental habits.
5. Development of right attitudes toward social situations.
6. Increased ability to learn other foreign languages.
7. Elementary knowledge of the simpler general principles of language structure.

Second Year.

1. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin.
2. Increased ability to read, speak and write English.
3. Development of an historical and cultural background.
4. Development of correct mental habits.
5. Development of right attitudes toward social situations.
6. Increased ability to learn other foreign languages.
7. Elementary knowledge of the simpler general principles of language structure.

Third Year.

1. Increased ability to read, speak and write English.
2. Development of an historical and cultural background.
3. Development of correct mental habits.
4. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin.
5. Development of right attitudes toward social situations.
6. Development of literary appreciation.
7. Increased ability to learn other foreign languages.

Fourth Year.

1. Increased ability to read, speak and write English.
2. Development of an historical and cultural background.
3. Development of correct mental habits.
4. Development of literary appreciation.
5. Development of right attitudes toward social situations.
6. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin.
7. Improvement in the literary style of the pupil's written English.

THE FIVE-YEAR COURSE

The type of school we have in mind in making these recommendations is one in which the study of Latin is begun one

year earlier than in the present four-year secondary school course.

I. Immediate Objective

See statement regarding the primary immediate objective under The Four-Year Course.

II. Ultimate Objectives

First Year.

1. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin.
2. Increased ability to read, speak and write English.
3. Development of an historical and cultural background.
4. Development of correct mental habits.
5. Development of right attitudes toward social situations.

Second, Third, Fourth and Fifth Years.

See ultimate objectives listed under the first, second, third and fourth years of The Four-Year Course.

THE SIX-YEAR COURSE

The type of school we have in mind in making these recommendations is one in which the study of Latin is begun two years earlier than in the present four-year secondary school course.

I. Immediate Objective

See statement regarding the primary immediate objective under The Four-Year Course.

II. Ultimate Objectives

First Year.

1. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin.
2. Development of an historical and cultural background.
3. Development of correct mental habits.
4. Development of right attitudes toward social situations.

Second Year.

1. Increased understanding of those elements in English which are related to Latin.
2. Increased ability to read, speak and write English.
3. Development of an historical and cultural background.
4. Development of correct mental habits.
5. Development of right attitudes toward social situations.

Third, Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Years.

See objectives listed under the first, second, third and fourth years of The Four-Year Course.

CHAPTER IV

THE CONTENT OF THE COURSE IN SECONDARY LATIN

Section 1. Introduction

IN the preceding chapter the immediate and ultimate objectives we regard as valid have been stated, and the extent to which these objectives are commonly attained under present conditions or are attainable under more favorable conditions of content and method has been indicated.

This chapter is concerned with the problem of determining what content provides the most effectual means for the progressive development of power to read and understand Latin¹ and for attaining the ultimate objectives regarded as valid for the various years of the course.

These two fundamental aims, namely, attainment of the immediate and ultimate objectives, should be concurrent and mutually supporting throughout the course from the very beginning of Latin all the way to the end. Without doubt Latin has been frequently so taught as to involve a conflict of interest between these two aims and a partial or even complete sacrifice of one for the supposed advantage of the other. Such an advantage, however, is in our opinion only apparent. Concurrent development of both aims will result in a fuller attainment of each, while supposedly necessary exclusive attention

¹ For the purpose of the present discussion it should be understood that by the *reading* of Latin is meant the comprehension of the thought in Latin, whether or not this is accompanied or followed by translation into English. While translation into adequate English of the thought comprehended has a special function in the development of ability to speak and write correct and effective English as an ultimate objective, it is our opinion that the contribution which translation makes to the comprehension of Latin *as Latin* is slight under methods commonly used at present.

to one will result in serious injury to both. Attainment of the immediate objectives is indispensable for attainment of the ultimate objectives, and attainment of the ultimate objectives furnishes the chief permanently valid motive as well as a sound basis for attainment of the immediate objectives.²

The continual interdependence of these two aims should be explicitly recognized in the content of the course and in the methods of instruction employed. For example, the reading material selected should be of such character as to provide the best basis for developing progressive power to read and understand Latin and at the same time to make the largest possible contribution to attainment of those objectives which depend primarily on the thought-content, such as development of a general historical background and development of literary appreciation. Again, the vocabulary and syntax to be included and emphasized in the reading material for the earlier period should be such as to contribute directly to progressive power to read and understand Latin and at the same time to furnish an adequate basis for a better understanding of related elements in English and for the learning of modern languages. Similarly, the methods employed in the comprehension of the Latin sentence should be such as to contribute also to development of correct habits of reflective thinking, and the methods employed in the learning of vocabulary, forms and syntax should be such as are valid for the mastering of Latin itself, and for developing correct mental habits generally.

² It was shown, for example, in the Philadelphia controlled experiment, that classes which devoted the greater amount of time and attention to the development of certain ultimate objectives also made the highest scores in the Latin comprehension test. The greater interest aroused in the pupils and practice in associating Latin with English and English with Latin seem to have reacted favorably upon the mastering of Latin itself.

Section 2. Procedure

The problem of framing recommendations regarding the content of the secondary course in Latin resolves itself into two complementary questions:

1. What content appears to provide conditions most favorable for the fullest attainment of the objectives determined upon as valid?
2. What reorganization of the present content should be made to ensure the fullest attainment of these objectives?

In securing data bearing on the problems of content we have generally used the same sources of information as were employed in the evaluation of objectives, namely, scientific studies, including tests and measurements, and analysis of opinion.

Many of the special studies described in the preceding chapter provide data not only for evaluation of objectives but also for determination of content. The studies undertaken to discover the extent to which there are elements common to the study of Latin and to the various fields with which the ultimate objectives are concerned have provided material for the content of the course by furnishing definite information as to what those common elements are. For example, the Thorndike-Grinstead word count, which provides one basis for determining whether the study of English derivatives is a valid objective for Latin pupils, has also produced a definite list of the words derived from Latin most frequently occurring in English and a list of the Latin words most important for the interpretation of these English derivatives. The bearing of such data upon the question of content is direct and important.

The results of the tests which were given for the purpose of measuring the extent to which certain ultimate objectives are commonly attained under present conditions of content

were discussed in the preceding chapter. The results of the tests given for the purpose of measuring the degree to which pupils show progressive ability to read and understand Latin and gain progressive mastery of the elements of Latin under present conditions of content will be analyzed in this and the following chapter.³

All schools participating in any of the tests were asked to fill out special blanks with descriptions of the content and methods employed in teaching the pupils who were tested.⁴ A study of the relation between results secured in the individual schools or classes and the content of the course in those schools has yielded very valuable information in regard to the most effective means of attaining the various objectives.

Important data bearing on the content of the course are furnished by a study of the relations between scores made by the same pupils in tests given to measure proficiency in the elements of Latin and in tests given to measure ability to comprehend or to translate Latin.⁵ Other similar studies show the relation between ability to comprehend Latin and the degree to which certain of the ultimate objectives are attained.⁶

In addition to the data secured from the tests and special studies we have sought to discover and analyze the opinion of a large body of experienced teachers of Latin as to what changes in the content of the course they regard as desirable. The chief sources used in securing this information have been:

1. Part II of the comprehensive general questionnaire, to which repeated reference was made in the preceding chapter.⁷

³ See also Part II, Chapter I, Section 2.

⁴ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 19.

⁵ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 8.

⁶ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 19.

⁷ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

2. A questionnaire on changes desired in the reading content of the Latin course, filled out by 115 teachers of secondary Latin.⁸
3. A questionnaire on changes desired in the reading content of the Latin course, filled out by 107 students enrolled in courses in the teaching of secondary Latin during the summer of 1923. Those comprising this group have in the main had less teaching experience than those in the preceding group.⁹
4. A questionnaire on the present reading content of the Latin course and on changes desired in the reading content, filled out by 166 teachers of secondary Latin in New England.¹⁰
5. A questionnaire on changes desired in the reading content of the Latin course, filled out by 109 teachers of secondary Latin who were members of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States.¹¹
6. A questionnaire on changes desired in the reading content of the Latin course, filled out by 71 teachers of secondary Latin in Nebraska.¹²
7. A questionnaire on changes desired in the reading content of the Latin course, filled out by 157 teachers of secondary Latin in Illinois.¹³
8. Ballots on changes desired in the reading content of the

⁸ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5. See also "The Classical Investigation: The Work of the First Two Years," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (June, 1923), pp. 564-565.

⁹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

¹⁰ "Latin in the Secondary Schools of New England," a special report submitted by H. E. Burton, Chairman of the Curriculum Committee of the New England Classical Association. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

¹¹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

¹² See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

¹³ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

Latin course, taken at six meetings of classical teachers held during the school year 1922-1923.¹⁴

9. Reports of round-table discussions on changes desired in the reading content of the Latin course at nine meetings of classical teachers held during the school year 1922-1923. Teachers of both college and secondary Latin participated in these round-table discussions.
10. A question blank on content and method, filled out by 3600 students who were completing their fourth year of Latin in secondary schools,¹⁵ and by 505 students who had studied Latin for four years in secondary schools and were studying freshman Latin in college.¹⁶
11. A questionnaire on the content of college courses in elementary Latin and on changes recommended in the content of secondary Latin, filled out by 75 instructors in these courses.¹⁷

In order to secure further information with reference to the present content of the course in secondary Latin, we have made use of the following additional sources:

1. Preliminary information given in the comprehensive general questionnaire.¹⁸
2. The Colthurst¹⁹ and Jones²⁰ studies, based on returns

¹⁴ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

¹⁵ F. C. Grise, "Content and Method in High School Latin," a doctor's dissertation at the George Peabody College for Teachers, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

¹⁶ R. Swan, "Content and Method in High School Latin," a master's dissertation at Indiana University, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

¹⁷ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

¹⁸ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

¹⁹ See C. Colthurst, "The Content of Latin Courses in a Number of North Central States," a master's dissertation at the University of Chicago, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 5, and "The Classical Investigation: The Work of the First Two Years," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (June, 1923), pp. 562-563.

²⁰ A. R. Jones, "The Amount and Kind of Latin Read in the Secondary

from questionnaires on the reading content of the Latin course in 445 schools in Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Ohio and Pennsylvania.

3. A study of the content of the Latin course in grades below the ninth in 40 schools.²¹
4. A detailed questionnaire on the content of the Latin course in 14 selected junior high schools, prepared in co-operation with an investigation being conducted for the Commonwealth Fund under the direction of James M. Glass of the State Department of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.²²
5. A questionnaire on the reading content of the course in Latin in 36 schools in England of the type most nearly comparable to the four-year secondary schools of the United States.²³
6. The Adams study, based on returns from a questionnaire filled out by 178 colleges on the minimum reading content required for 1, 2, 3 and 4 units of entrance credit in Latin.²⁴
7. The Pound and Helle study, based on an analysis of 273 local examinations (question papers) in Latin secured from typical secondary schools.²⁵

Schools of Pennsylvania and Ohio in 1921-1922," a master's dissertation at the University of Pittsburgh, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

²¹ See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 20.

²² J. M. Glass, *Curriculum Practices in the Junior High School*.

²³ See "The Classics in England," a special report by I. L. Kandel, Part III, Chapter I.

²⁴ See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 15.

²⁵ L. G. Pound and R. H. Helle, "An Investigation of the Objectives in the Teaching of Latin," a joint masters' dissertation at the Ohio State University, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 13.

*Section 3. Examination of the Present Content of the Course
in Relation to the Attainment of the Objectives
Determined upon as Valid*

The evidence furnished by the tests and special studies and confirmed by the judgment of teachers indicates that the present content of the four-year Latin course as commonly found in the schools is too extensive in amount or too difficult in kind, or both, to provide a suitable medium for the satisfactory attainment of the objectives which were determined upon in the preceding chapter as valid for the course in secondary Latin.

The Uhl studies,²⁶ based upon reports from 85,000 pupils distributed through all four years of the course, show that the average daily amount of time outside the class now devoted by Latin pupils to the preparation of their lessons is considerably greater in each year of the course than is required for any other subject in the secondary school, and that even first-year Latin requires more time for preparation than any other subject in any year of the course. The Grise and Swan studies²⁷ show an even greater average daily expenditure of time than that shown in the Uhl studies. The Uhl studies show further that the proportion of pupils who devote daily an average of an hour and a half or more to the preparation of a Latin lesson is greater than in the case of any other college preparatory subject, and that this proportion increases with each year's study of Latin.

Even with this expenditure of time there is ample evidence that really satisfactory results are not at present being

²⁶ W. H. Uhl, "How Much Time for Latin?" *The Classical Journal*, XIX (January, 1924), pp. 215-221; "The Time Element in High Schools," *School Review*, XXXII (February, 1924), pp. 105-121. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 14.

²⁷ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

secured in the attainment of either the immediate or the ultimate objectives. Cumulative evidence from many different sources indicates that this situation is largely due to congestion arising from introduction into the course of too many formal elements, especially during the first year, too early introduction of the first classical author to be read, failure to include in the course abundant easy reading material for the purpose of developing early the pupil's ability to read Latin as Latin, prescription of too large an amount of classical Latin to be read intensively, lack of sufficient variety in the choice of reading material, and failure to give adequate emphasis to attainment of the ultimate objectives.

Evidence as to the extent to which the immediate objectives are being attained is furnished by the results of the Latin tests which were run with thousands of pupils in each year of the course to measure progress in certain fundamental Latin attainments, in ability to translate Latin sentences and to answer questions on the thought-content of Latin paragraphs.

The tests in Latin vocabulary, verb-forms and syntax required a knowledge of only the vocabulary, forms and syntax commonly included in the first year's work in Latin.²⁸ Furthermore, three of the four tests on forms and syntax involved a functional and not a formal knowledge of these elements, while the fourth involved a formal knowledge of the rules of syntax. The Brueckner study²⁹ is based on these tests, namely, the Henmon Vocabulary Test, the Tyler-Pressey Test in Verb-Forms, the Pressey Test in Latin Syntax along with the Godsey Diagnostic Test in Latin Composition, and the Henmon Test in Sentence Translation scored on the unit-

²⁸ See Part II, Chapter I, Sections 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7.

²⁹ L. J. Brueckner, "The Status of Certain Basic Latin Skills," *Journal of Educational Research*, IX (May, 1924), pp. 390-402.

credit basis of the author and also on the partial-credit basis devised by the Investigating Committee.³⁰ The average percentages of attainment for the country as a whole are given in the following table. While they show an almost unbroken improvement from semester to semester, the averages attained during the first two years on first-year material are low.

FROM THE BRUECKNER STUDY

Percentages of attainment made at the end of each semester for seven successive semesters of the high school course

TESTS	SEMESTERS						
	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Latin Vocabulary (Henmon)	66.5	77.5	84.0	88.5	91.1	93.2	93.1
Verb-Forms (Tyler-Pressey)	51.3	58.4	59.5	65.3	75.3	83.7	82.0
Syntax (Pressey)	47.1	48.6	59.8	61.2	72.4	75.6	79.5
Composition (Godsey)	41.2	47.5	56.3	59.7	71.2	69.0	77.5
Rules of Syntax (Godsey)	55.7	63.6	73.0	78.7	85.0	84.4	90.4
Sentence Translation (unit-credit)	25.5	32.5	39.0	47.5	52.0	58.0	56.5
Sentence Translation (partial-credit)	41.5	54.2	64.8	73.0	78.4	83.3	82.0

On such of these tests as were also used in special state surveys conducted in Iowa,³¹ Michigan³² and Mississippi³³ the medians reported are slightly lower than those established for the country as a whole.

A study of the correlation between the scores made by pupils who took all these Latin tests indicates that for these pupils no significant relation is discovered to exist be-

³⁰ D. S. White, "Partial Credit vs. Unit Credit in Scoring a Translation Test," Part II, Chapter I, Section 3.

³¹ L. Byrne, "Latin Tests in Iowa High Schools," University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 92 (July 1, 1923).

³² C. Woody, "The Ullman-Kirby and Godsey Latin Tests, and the Carr English Vocabulary Tests," Bulletin No. 56 (May 21, 1923) and "Report of Latin Investigation in Various High Schools of Michigan," Bulletin No. 64 (March 31, 1924), of the Bureau of Educational Reference and Research of the University of Michigan.

³³ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 1.

tween knowledge of the rules and ability to translate, while a high correlation is found between the scores made by the same pupils in the tests on functional syntax and on sentence translation.³⁴

The Ullman-Kirby test,³⁵ which was run with several thousand Latin pupils in each year of the course, was designed to test the ability of pupils to answer questions on the thought-content of Latin paragraphs increasing in difficulty and conforming to the vocabulary and style of the authors commonly read in successive years of the course. The rise in median scores from semester to semester indicates a steady growth in this ability. There is no way, however, of determining whether or not the pupils taking the test arrived at the answers they gave by reading the Latin as Latin.

The question of the manner in which pupils attack a Latin sentence is primarily one of method. However, the question also has a direct bearing on the determination of content. If the development of power to read Latin as Latin is regarded as a valid objective, one of the most important criteria to be employed in the selection of content is the potential capacity of any particular content to serve as a medium for developing this power.

We have repeatedly stated our conviction that the primary immediate objective in the teaching of Latin is the progressive development of power to read and understand Latin. This means training the pupil from the first to get the thought in the Latin order and directly from the Latin itself instead of backwards and indirectly through the translation. This definition of reading has long been generally accepted, at least in theory, and has found expression in the reports of

³⁴ L. J. Brueckner, "The Status of Certain Basic Latin Skills," *Journal of Educational Research*, IX (May, 1924), pp. 390-402.

³⁵ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 2.

various competent bodies.³⁶ The following statement, taken from the Report of the Commission on College Entrance Requirements,³⁷ appears in the regular announcements of the College Entrance Examination Board³⁸ and in many college catalogues:

“From the outset particular attention should be given to developing the ability to take in the meaning of each word,—and so, gradually, of the whole sentence,—just as it stands; the sentence should be read and understood in the order of the original, with full appreciation of the force of each word as it comes, so far as this can be known or inferred from that which has preceded and from the form and the position of the word itself.”

That this view is in general accepted also by secondary teachers is indicated by the fact that about 75% of the teachers who filled out the general questionnaire recommended the use of methods directed to developing the pupil's ability to take in the thought of the Latin sentence as it stands, while about 25% recommended training the pupil in purely analytical methods of procedure.

³⁶ For example, in the Report of the Committee of Twelve, published in the *Proceedings of the American Philological Association*, XXX (1899) cv: “The student should be carefully trained to take in the meaning of the sentence in the order in which it stands, and before translating.” On this point see also the Report of the Committee of Ten of the National Education Association (1894), 70-71: “The student should be taught to regard translation not as a means of finding out what his author has said, but as, on the one hand, a way of making it clear to his instructor that he has understood and, on the other, an exercise in expression,—a literary exercise,—in his own tongue. And finally it should be shown him that, even on the most practical grounds, to attempt to find out the meaning of a Latin sentence through translating it (as the common way is) is an operation almost sure to miscarry.”

³⁷ See *Proceedings of the American Philological Association*, XI.I (1910), cxxxvii-cxi.

³⁸ See “Suggestions concerning Preparation” in Document 101 of the College Entrance Examination Board (August 1, 1921), p. 27.

That an analytical process is actually followed by the majority of Latin students in secondary schools and colleges is shown in the Grise and Swan studies.³⁹ More than 60% of the fourth- and fifth-year students reporting on this question indicate that in their attack upon a Latin sentence they use some such method as this: "I look first for the subject, and translate that; then for the verb, and translate that; then for the object, and translate that; and then fit in the rest of the sentence," while less than 20% indicate that they use some such method as this: "I read each sentence completely through in Latin, trying to grasp the meaning of each word-group in the Latin order, and then translate the sentence as a whole," and about 10% indicate that they try to read the Latin for the thought without any attempt to translate it.

Judd and Buswell conclude from their investigation,⁴⁰ based upon a photographic study of eye-movements of fourteen pupils, that "analytical types of reading are universal and of such an order as to make it evident throughout that these students have not learned to read Latin" (page 126). To quote further: "Latin students are not taught to read. They are trained only to look at words. Not only so but they are so trained to look at words that it is quite impossible to find any system in their looking. There seem to be no mental devices in their experience for disentangling a complex of Latin words" (page 137). The fourteen pupils whose eye-movements were registered in this study were selected as the best third-year Latin pupils from seven high schools in and near Chicago, and the material they were asked to read consisted of fairly simple passages from Eutropius and Caesar. While it may be doubted whether evidence based on a

³⁹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

⁴⁰ C. H. Judd and G. T. Buswell, "Silent Reading: A Study of Various Types," *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 23, University of Chicago Press (1922).

particular test of such a small number of pupils warrants so sweeping a conclusion as to Latin students generally, the evidence should be accepted as valid within the limits of the experiment.

The entire available evidence from various sources seems to be fairly conclusive that pupils studying Latin in secondary schools have not succeeded in developing proper methods of reading Latin as Latin. It is our opinion that the common tendency on the part of the pupils to follow the line of least resistance in their attack upon a Latin sentence is largely due to our failure to provide early in the course for sufficient practice with easy reading material and to emphasize the functional rather than the formal aspect of the elements of the language.⁴¹

The results of the tests to measure progress in attainment of the ultimate objectives analyzed in the preceding chapter show in general a less degree of attainment than is secured in the case of the immediate objectives. That these results can be improved through the study of Latin and that failure to develop them is mainly or wholly due to the lack of time and attention definitely devoted to their attainment is clearly

⁴¹ "With respect to the organization of materials and methods of teaching the Committee desires to emphasize the importance of making actual experience rather than formal memory the primary basis of the pupil's learning. In particular this means: (1) that in the learning of vocabulary, inflection and syntax, far greater emphasis be placed on practice in application and less emphasis on the formal study of words, paradigms and rules; (2) that in the organization of materials, especially during the earlier stages, far more time and energy be devoted to practice in the use of vocabulary, inflectional forms and principles of syntax, and less time and energy to the formal study of those elements. This second recommendation should mean a great reduction in the formal study of inflections and syntax in the first year of Latin study, but a great increase in the relative amount of practice in use." From the Report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association for the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

shown by the results of the controlled experiments. In each of the controlled experiments those groups of pupils which were given definite training in applying to other fields the facts, processes, methods and habits developed in the study of Latin showed a marked superior growth over the groups to which no such training was given.

Attention has already been called to the low standard of English accepted in class-room translations and to its relation to the development of ability to speak and write correct and effective English. It is our opinion that this low standard of class-room English is due in part to the attempt to cover too much ground and in part to the common class-room practice of using translation as the chief if not the only method of discovering whether pupils have prepared their assignments in reading. However high their own standards of class-room translation may be, most teachers find it a practical impossibility to secure generally from their pupils a "good, idiomatic English version" of the ordinary daily reading assignment. Bad English is common enough in all our school studies, but it is not therefore tolerable for use in translating Latin.

The evidence drawn from the tests and special studies with respect to the degree of success with which the various objectives are attained is confirmed by the judgment of teachers. But as has already been pointed out, the estimates of teachers on this point are to be regarded as on the whole too favorable. Thus, for example, only 21% of the teachers⁴² filling out the general questionnaire regarded as unsatisfactory the results secured in the progressive development of power to read Latin. Yet a majority of the teachers expressed

⁴² Not all of the 1150 teachers who filled out the general questionnaire answered every question. The percentages given in this chapter are based in each case upon the number answering the particular question under discussion.

dissatisfaction with the extent to which most of the ultimate objectives were being attained. Thus 75% regarded as unsatisfactory the results secured in developing literary appreciation; about 60% regarded as unsatisfactory the results in developing an historical and cultural background, in developing good English through adequate translation, and in developing a knowledge of general language structure. From 43% to 50% regarded as unsatisfactory the results secured in developing desirable mental habits and in the ability to read English; 40% considered that neither a knowledge of classical allusions nor an understanding of the actual Latin occurring in English was being satisfactorily developed; while from 23% to 35% were dissatisfied with the ability of pupils to apply Latin to the learning of the elements of English or to the mastering of foreign languages. The evidence drawn from results of the tests is particularly conclusive in the case of this last mentioned ability. It indicates that the results actually secured in this field are not as great as has been commonly believed.

The evidence from all sources indicates that the greatest need for reorganization of content is in the historical, cultural and appreciative fields. For example, the teachers of Vergil whose pupils, as has already been shown, are devoting an amount of time to the preparation of their lessons greater than is given to any other subject in any year, while practically unanimous in their opinion that literary appreciation is a valid and attainable objective in the fourth year of the course, say that they cannot find sufficient time to devote to the attainment of this objective.⁴³ Furthermore, 93% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire expressed the belief that the Latin reading material should be so taught as to contribute to the attainment of the historical-cultural objectives, although 85% expressed the opinion that the

⁴³ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

present reading content of the course does not provide sufficiently for this purpose, and 96% expressed the opinion that, with present amount and kind of content, supplementary material in English should be included in the course.⁴⁴

The general conclusions we have reached as to the relative degree to which certain objectives of the study of Latin are attained in the country as a whole are confirmed by the results of a special state survey conducted in the State of New York. The Arms-Bogart-Morrison study,⁴⁵ based upon the answer papers written by 15,364 second-year Latin pupils in the Regents examination given in the secondary schools in June, 1922, shows that of the immediate objectives a knowledge of the elements ranks lowest in attainment,⁴⁶ while translation at sight ranks slightly higher than translation of passages prescribed in the syllabus.⁴⁷ The study also shows that of the two ultimate objectives explicitly recognized in the examination (the understanding of derivatives and a knowledge of the historical background), the first was attained to a reasonably satisfactory degree, while the average made on those questions relating to the second was the lowest for any immediate or ultimate objective represented in the examination questions.⁴⁸ It should be noted in this connection that the

⁴⁴ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

⁴⁵ S. D. Arms, E. E. Bogart and J. C. Morrison, "Results in Latin: First Two Years," Bulletin No. 773 of the University of the State of New York (January 1, 1923).

⁴⁶ The average percentile mark on vocabulary was 57.2, on forms 57.4, and on syntax 57.16.

⁴⁷ The average mark on sight translation was 74.13 and on prescribed translation was 72.66. Three possible explanations are offered by the authors of the report for the higher score on sight translation, namely: growth in the ability of pupils to get the thought from a connected Latin text; the selection of passages for sight translation relatively easier than the passages from the prescribed text; and greater leniency in the rating of sight passages.

⁴⁸ The average mark on derivatives was 73.5 and on historical background was 51.6.

Latin syllabus of the State of New York contains specific prescriptions for the teaching of English derivatives throughout the first two years. The contrast in the averages secured in these two portions of the examination confirms our conviction that adequate attainment of any objective depends upon the introduction of definite material and methods appropriate for the attainment of that objective. The desirability of including in each year of the course material both in Latin and in English which will contribute definitely to the pupil's knowledge of historical background seems clear.⁴⁹

Entirely in harmony with this evidence is the general judgment of psychologists that automatic realization of the values implicit in Latin cannot be counted on to any large extent and that time must be found for the introduction of appropriate material and the use of appropriate methods in order to secure the satisfactory attainment of any of the ultimate objectives.

It is our opinion that if pupils are to make adequate progress in development of power to read Latin, the too great relative emphasis now placed upon the formal study of these elements of Latin must be replaced by practice in applying these elements directly in the reading of fairly easy well-graded material. It is also our opinion that if the majority of one-year, two-year and three-year Latin pupils are to realize values commensurate with the time devoted to the study of Latin, time must be provided early in the course for

⁴⁹ "Further, from the first, the reading lessons should, as far as possible, deal with themes distinctly classical, especially Roman legends, biographies, anecdotes and historic events. A knowledge of some of the great personages and dramatic events in Roman history ought to be required of all our pupils. A course of reading in English on such themes should be outlined, and the reading should be exacted of the pupils. The reading of appropriate poems, stories, etc., in English should be encouraged." From the Report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association for the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

the introduction of specific material upon which to base the definite training of Latin pupils in applying to related fields the facts, processes, methods and habits acquired in Latin.

The conclusion drawn from results of the tests as to the necessity for changes is confirmed by the specific recommendations of teachers. Seventy-five per cent of the teachers answering the general questionnaire expressed the opinion that defective organization of the Latin course is mainly responsible for failure to secure satisfactory attainment of the objectives regarded as valid, while only 19% ascribed the unsatisfactory results to the lack of a clear definition of objectives in the minds of the teachers.⁵⁰ Eighty-four per cent of the teachers expressed the opinion that, if they were free to do so, they would modify the present course. Of those expressing this opinion 97% indicated their belief that the course so modified would provide an adequate basis for continued reading of Latin in college, and 84% expressed the belief that the present college entrance requirements should be correspondingly modified.

Of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire 91% would read some easy or "made" Latin before taking up the first classical author, and 97% of these would have this material deal mainly with classical themes. Of the teachers who expressed a preference for Caesar as the first classical author to be read in the course, as most of them did, 54% would begin Caesar in the fourth semester or later, while 42% would begin Caesar in the third semester, and 4% in the second semester.⁵¹ Eighty per cent of these teachers state that they would read less Caesar than they do at present. Of the

⁵⁰ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

⁵¹ "The Committee believes that better results will be gained if the continuous reading of the unmodified text of Caesar is postponed to the beginning of the fourth half-year." From the report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association for the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

teachers who would include Cicero and Vergil in the course, as most of them would, 56% would read less Cicero than they do at present, while 52% would during the fourth year read Latin somewhat less in amount than six books of Vergil.

Of the teachers filling out the special questionnaire⁵² on changes desired in the reading content of the Latin course, 93% stated that, if they were free to do so, they would make changes in the kind, amount or order of the material read in the present standard course. Ninety-six per cent would read a considerable amount of easy Latin before taking up the first classical author, 15% would begin the reading of the first classical author at the beginning of the third semester or earlier, 30% about the middle or end of the third semester, and 55% at the beginning of the fourth semester or later. Sixty-five per cent of these teachers would reduce the amount of classical Latin reading material included in the present standard course.

A tabulation of results of the questionnaire⁵² on reading content, which was filled out during the summer of 1923 by teachers and students taking courses in the teaching of Latin, shows that 88% would make some changes in reading content of the present Latin course; 90% would read a considerable amount of easy Latin before taking up the first classical author; 19% would take up the first classical author at the beginning of the third semester or earlier, 38% at about the middle or end of the third semester, and 43% at the beginning of the fourth. Sixty-nine per cent would read less Caesar, 38% would read less Cicero, and 29% would read less Vergil.

An analysis of 71 replies to a questionnaire⁵³ sent out to teachers of secondary Latin in Nebraska shows that 96% of those answering would make changes, if they felt free to do so, in the kind, amount or order of the material read in the

⁵² See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁵³ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

present Latin course; that 62% would reduce the minimum reading requirements; that of those who would read Caesar 16% would take up Caesar in the third semester, and 84% in the fourth semester or later.

The results of a ballot⁵⁴ taken at the meeting of the Classical Section of the New York Teachers' Association held November 30, 1922, show that 97% of the teachers voting would make changes, if they felt free to do so, in their present course;⁵⁵ that 84% would reduce the amount of reading required in the second year; 10% the amount in the third year, and 3% the amount in the fourth year;⁵⁶ that of those who would read Caesar 26% would begin the reading in the third semester and 74% in the fourth semester; that 87% would read a considerable amount of easy Latin before taking up the first classical author; and that 88% believe that three semesters should be devoted to the forms and syntax usually included in a first-year book.

The results of a ballot⁵⁷ taken at a meeting of the New Jersey Classical Association held October 28, 1922, show that 95% of the teachers voting would make changes, if they felt free to do so, in their present Latin course; that 78% would reduce their present minimum reading requirements; that of those who would read Caesar 14% would begin the reading in the third semester and 86% in the fourth semester; and that 79% favor simplification of the college entrance examination in Latin composition.

An analysis of the answers returned by 109 teachers of secondary Latin to a questionnaire sent to the members of the

⁵⁴ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁵⁵ For the content of the present course see the *New York State Syllabus for Ancient Languages* (1919).

⁵⁶ The New York State syllabus prescribes an amount of required reading in the third year equivalent to five orations of Cicero, and in the fourth year the equivalent of five books of Vergil's *Aeneid*.

⁵⁷ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

Classical Association of the Atlantic States⁵⁸ shows that 89% desire some change in the standard course; 48% would reduce the amount of reading, 86% would read "easy Latin" before taking up the first classical author; 48% would take up the first classical author at the beginning of the third semester or earlier, 33% at about the middle or end of the third semester, and 18% at the beginning of the fourth semester or later.⁵⁹

The Burton study,⁶⁰ based upon replies to a questionnaire sent to the teachers of secondary Latin in New England, shows that 42% of the teachers replying believe that they would secure better results if the college entrance requirements should be changed so as to place the emphasis upon the time to be given to the study of Latin rather than upon the amount of Latin read. Of the 58% favoring a prescription as to amount many teachers think the present amount is excessive. The report adds: "With a smaller requirement more time could be given to drill, to sight reading, and to literary values." They especially regard the requirement for the second and fourth years as excessive; for the second year, because the pupils "are not ready for Caesar." To quote again from this report: "One gets the impression that few teachers, except those in schools having four and a half-, five- or six-

⁵⁸ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁵⁹ The form of the initial question asked was: "Do you desire any changes in the Standard Course (Beginners' Book: Caesar B.G., 1-4; Cicero, Cat. 1-4, Archias, Manilian Law; Aeneid, 1-6)?" This question differed in one important particular from the question asked in the general questionnaire and the other special questionnaires and ballots analyzed above, all of which contained the clause, "If you were free from limitations imposed by college entrance requirements, scholarship examinations, official courses of study, text-book adoptions and like considerations."

⁶⁰ "Latin in the Secondary Schools of New England," a special report submitted by H. E. Burton, Chairman of the Curriculum Committee of the New England Classical Association. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

year courses, believe that the average pupil is ready to begin the reading of Caesar when the reading of Caesar is begun." Slightly over 50% of the teachers answering the New England questionnaire expressed the belief that examination in advanced composition for admission to college should be omitted.

A summary⁶¹ of replies received from 157 teachers of secondary Latin in Illinois shows that of those who would read Caesar 3% would take up Caesar at the beginning of the third semester, 4% during the third semester, and 93% at the beginning of the fourth semester; that 94% would reduce the amount of reading included in the present standard course for the second year, 89% the amount for the third year, and 88% the amount for the fourth year.

With reference to the amount of emphasis to be placed upon the technical phases of instruction the judgment of teachers is equally clear. Eighty per cent of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire think that the technical aspects of the study of Latin in secondary schools are commonly over-emphasized to the neglect of the cultural aspects. Seventy-five per cent believe that too much syntax is commonly included in the first year's work, and of these 99% recommend the postponement of some rules and principles until the second year, 83% until the third year and 55% until the fourth year, while 50% would omit from the secondary course entirely some rules and principles now commonly included in the first year's work.⁶² Similarly, 63% of the teachers filling out

⁶¹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁶² On this point compare the following statement from the Report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education: "Too many things are crowded at present into the first year of Latin study, especially in the field of syntax. As a result, there is not time for the requisite drill, especially toward the close of the year. New syntactical subjects crowd so rapidly upon the pupil's attention that no one subject

the general questionnaire believe that too many forms are commonly included in the first year's work, and all of them would postpone some of these forms until the second year, 63% until the third year and 37% until the fourth year, while 41% would omit from the secondary course entirely some forms now commonly included in the first year's work.

Stenographic reports of round-table discussions conducted at the meetings of the Classical Association of New England, the Kentucky Classical Association, the Southern Section of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, and the Classical Association of Maryland show a general trend of positive opinion in favor of the following points: (1) simplification of the work of the first year; (2) provision for abundant reading of suitably graded material before the first classical author is taken up; (3) postponement of the first classical author until the fourth semester; and (4) reduction in the amount of reading prescribed and in general less emphasis upon quantity and more attention to quality. Thus, the Kentucky Classical Association recommended a reduction of amount in the second and third years. At the meeting of the Southern Section of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South reductions were urged in every year of the course. At the meeting of the New England Classical Association a large majority favored a proposed change in college entrance requirements which would involve the study of Latin five hours a week for four years, and admission to college through the comprehensive examination or by certificate. At the meeting of the Classical Association of Maryland reduction in amount was urged by every speaker who participated in the discussion.

Summarized reports of round-table discussions conducted is fixed firmly in mind. It would be better to prolong the period of infancy, so to speak, through the first three half-years, in order to gain needed time for real mastery of the essentials."

at meetings of the Latin Section of the Iowa State Teachers' Association, the Classical Section of the Kentucky State Teachers' Association, the Classical Section of the Bay Section California State Teachers' Association, and the New Jersey Classical Association indicate the same general tendencies as those shown in the stenographic reports.

No stenographic report was received for the round-table discussion conducted at the meeting of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States held at Wilmington, Delaware, December 2, 1922. The report of this meeting published by the Secretary states that "it was plainly the sense of the gathering that the present curriculum in Latin for the Preparatory Schools is not excessive in its demands."⁶³

In the stenographic reports of round-table discussions referred to above there is frequent reference to various devices to which teachers feel they must resort in order to "cover" the prescribed amount of reading. One teacher said: "In trying to cover the required amount of Latin I am sure that in very many cases subterfuges are employed that none of us exactly approve." Another teacher said: "We have no trouble in covering the course as it is; one oration of Cicero and one book of Vergil is usually read to the class by the teacher." It is clear that in many schools a part of the prescribed reading for each year is done by special assignments.

Others frankly admitted that they have abandoned the attempt to read intensively the required amount. One teacher said, for example: "It is just impossible in the time we have at the present day to cover all the material we should like to cover, that is, the four books of Caesar, Cicero and Vergil. The teachers worry about the necessity of covering the requirements, make the mistake of striving to cover them, and soon pupil and teacher come to despair. The method used

⁶³ See "Classical Association of the Atlantic States: Fourth Annual Fall Meeting," *The Classical Weekly*, XVI (January 15, 1923), p. 31.

by me is not to try to cover the ground, but to enable the student to be able to go on."

An analysis of replies to a questionnaire⁶⁴ sent to college instructors giving courses in elementary Latin which are accepted by their institutions as the equivalent of two units of Latin for entrance credit shows that 47% of those reporting read classical Latin less in amount than two books of Caesar, 22% read more than two books but less than four, and 31% read four books. Of those who report having read less than two books of Caesar more than half read no classical Latin at all or at most not more than ten pages. It is evident that many colleges have felt free to reduce the amount of the reading content of their elementary courses in Latin considerably below that required of secondary school pupils who apply for the same amount of credit. Many of these instructors, basing their comments upon their experience in teaching elementary Latin in college, contributed valuable suggestions concerning the kind and amount of reading material to be included in the work of the first two years in the secondary schools.

The general pressure for time now felt throughout the secondary course in Latin, some of it due to the shortened time allotted to the class period of instruction, is further indicated by the fact that the general tendency to organize Latin clubs has been to a considerable extent the result of a desire to find the additional time necessary to develop those values of the study of Latin which are regarded by teachers as legitimate, but which, because of insufficient amount of time, cannot be given adequate attention in the regular class period.⁶⁵ The

⁶⁴ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁶⁵ Thus in the Report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education the need of additional time outside the class period is recognized and much stress is laid upon the utilization of Latin clubs to supplement class-room instruction: "Some of these topics

pressure for time is also indicated by the fact that 45% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire report that they find it necessary to devote one or more hours a week outside of the class period to preparing pupils to take the College Entrance Board examinations.

That the remedy for the present congestion in the course is to be found in part in a reduction of the content is further indicated by the fact that an increasing number of individual schools are attempting to meet the situation by reading an amount of classical Latin considerably less than that prescribed in the standard course. The Jones study,⁶⁶ based upon information from 261 representative schools in Ohio and Pennsylvania, shows that 29% of the schools reporting on this question read in 1921-1922 less than four books of Caesar's Gallic War; that 20% read less than six orations of Cicero and that 17% read less than six books of the Aeneid. The Colthurst study⁶⁷ shows that a similar situation exists in the schools of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota and South Dakota. In these seven states 29% of the schools reporting on this question read less than four books of Caesar, 11% less than six orations of Cicero, and 23% less than six books of the Aeneid. From information furnished by teachers filling out the general questionnaire it is clear that the situation reported above is of wide extent.

The demand for reduction in the amount of classical Latin to be read in the secondary course has met with official sanction in the announcements of many colleges. The Adams study,⁶⁸ based on definite statements secured from the ad- will properly be included in the regular assignments of the class-room; but many of them will serve as subjects for investigation and report at meetings of the Latin Club."

⁶⁶ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁶⁷ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁶⁸ A. W. Adams, *An Analysis of College Entrance Requirements*. See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 15.

mission officers of 178 colleges and universities, shows that 47% of these institutions accept for four units of entrance credit the reading of classical Latin less in amount than that prescribed in the standard course.

The reading of less than the standard amount of classical Latin has the official sanction of several state departments of education. The New York State Syllabus for Ancient Languages (1919) provides for the substitution of Ritchie's *Argonauts* for an equal amount of Caesar. The reduction in the amount of reading required by the New York State Syllabus in the third and fourth years has already been mentioned. The Pennsylvania State Course of Study (1923) makes provision for the reading of easy Latin for the first three months of the second year and for a corresponding reduction in the amount of classical Latin to be read in that year.

The same tendency appears in several other recently issued state or local courses of study in Latin. For example, the Maryland State Syllabus for Latin (1921), while requiring an amount of reading equivalent to that contained in the standard course, states that the equivalent of one book of Caesar, two of Cicero's orations, and two books of the *Aeneid* may be read at sight, and the Latin Syllabus for the High Schools of Chicago (1922) requires an amount of reading in each year approximately one-fifth less than that contained in the standard course.

Despite the practical difficulties which tend to discourage independent action, some individual schools and school systems have already further sought to relieve the congestion, especially in the first year of the course, by providing for a longer approach to the first classical author and by postponing to the third semester, or later, a part of the grammatical material included in the usual type of beginners'

book. The Jones and Colthurst studies⁶⁹ show that 21% of the 353 schools reporting on this question read some easy Latin in the third semester before beginning the reading of the first classical author. These studies show further that 18% of these schools continued the use of the beginners' book throughout the whole or a part of the third semester.

Further evidence that the general demand for a reduction in the amount of work to be done during the first two years is reasonable is disclosed by a comparison of the reading content of the Latin courses in the secondary schools of the United States with the reading content of corresponding courses in the schools of Germany and of England. It is clear that pupils in American high schools are expected, on the basis of the present standard course, to read with the same expenditure of time a much larger amount than is required of pupils in European schools.

In the recently developed *reformgymnasium* of Germany⁷⁰ pupils begin the study of Latin at from twelve to thirteen years of age. Their initial equipment is much superior to that of the average American pupil when he begins the study of Latin. These German pupils have studied German grammar carefully for the three preceding years, have read selected stories from the mythology and heroic legends of Greece and Rome, have studied a modern foreign language for three years, and have had a year's course in Greek and Roman history. Even with this initial equipment pupils devote ten fifty minute periods a week during the first year to elementary Latin, including the reading of approximately seventy pages of easy Latin, before beginning the first classical author, which is usually Caesar. This is more than double the time

⁶⁹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁷⁰ See "The Teaching of Classics in Secondary Schools in Germany," in a Special Report on Educational Subjects published for the Board of Education by Wyman and Sons, London (1910), Volume 20, pp. 123, 126-7.

allotted to first-year Latin in American high schools. Not until the middle of his third year has the American pupil spent in the Latin class-room the same total amount of time a German pupil has spent before he begins his first classical author.

Even with this thorough preparation German pupils are not expected during the first half of the second year to translate any Caesar independently. During this time all the advanced assignments in translation are worked out in class.⁷¹ The time allotment during the second year is eight fifty-minute periods a week, double the amount of time available in American schools. Under these conditions about five books of Caesar and 700 lines of Ovid are read in the second year.

An examination of the Latin programmes⁷² of thirty-six secondary schools in England of the type in which pupils begin Latin at approximately twelve years of age and continue it for four years reveals several general tendencies. The reading of easy Latin is begun early in the course and the "reader" forms the basis for the study of the vocabulary, syntax and forms. In twenty-one of the thirty-six schools whose programmes were examined a classical author is begun in the second year. This author is usually Caesar, although Ovid is often read and occasionally Eutropius or selections

⁷¹ "Yet even for a boy of 13-14 years, who has an average aptitude for languages, the first plunge into Caesar is hard; the Germans recognize frankly that many of the difficulties he presents are greater than they can expect boys to solve for themselves, and therefore to set a boy down to Caesar with no hint or help except a dictionary is either to make him despair or practically to drive him to the use of subterfuges which will make possible the impossible. Every teacher recognizes that the use of 'cribs' depraves both mind and morals, and therefore his first duty is to train the boy, who means honestly by his work, to feel that he can do without them. It is like teaching a boy to swim,—one must hold up his chin until he begins to feel that he can go by himself. Accordingly, during the first half of Caesar all preparation is done in class with the teacher, and all the boy has to do at home is to revise carefully what has been so prepared." *Ibid.*, p. 38.

⁷² See Part III, Chapter I.

from various authors. The average amount of classical Latin read intensively in these twenty-one schools during the second year is approximately equivalent to one book, or at the most to two books of Caesar. In fourteen of the thirty-six schools the reading of a classical author is not begun until the third year. The postponement of the reading of the first classical author until the third year is recommended in the recent report of the committee appointed by the Prime Minister to inquire into the position of the classics in the educational system of England.⁷³ There is a considerable variety of reading material in the third year of the course, the following authors appearing: Caesar, Sallust, Cicero, Livy, Pliny, Ovid, Vergil and Horace. The same authors furnish the material for reading in the fourth year. There is also practice in reading and translating "unseens." The amount of classical Latin read intensively during the third and fourth years is about one-third of that included in the present standard course of American schools. The amount of time each week usually given to Latin varies from four to five periods of forty-five minutes each with assignments for each lesson to be prepared outside of class.⁷⁴

It has already been pointed out that one of the criteria which should be employed in determining the reading content is its suitability for contributing to the appreciation of the historical-cultural values and that these objectives are not now being satisfactorily attained. It is important to consider whether the results could be improved by a wiser choice of reading material. There is considerable difference of opinion among teachers as to whether the content of the present standard course constitutes the best medium which Latin

⁷³ See *The Classics in English Education*, H. M. Stationery Office, London, England (1921).

⁷⁴ It must be remembered, however, that pupils in these English and German schools begin the study of Latin two years younger than American pupils begin Latin in our standard four-year secondary school course.

literature affords for attaining these objectives so far as they are attainable within the period of secondary education, and there is pressing need for a careful appraisal of the present course from this point of view and for an equally careful appraisal of all the resources of Latin literature in order to discover the material which will best satisfy the criterion proposed and at the same time constitute a suitable medium for progressive development of power to read Latin.

The selection of material which will encourage the teacher to develop and the pupil to realize the cultural and historical values, meet the needs of different types of schools and satisfy the varying interests of teachers involves both the searching out of much hitherto unused material and the free opportunity for teachers to put such material to the test of classroom use.

Accordingly, if such new material is to be provided, our recommendations concerning reading content must be characterized by considerable freedom and the standard course must be so defined as to encourage teachers to use this freedom in selecting the reading content which in their judgment will best serve for the attainment of the historical-cultural objectives they consider valid for their pupils.

A freer range of reading has long been generally recognized as desirable in the Latin course for secondary schools. It has been strongly recommended at various times in the last thirty years by all committees which have investigated the question.⁷⁵

⁷⁵Report of Committee of Ten on Secondary School Subjects. National Education Association (1893), pp. 63-64.

Report of Committee of Twelve. In *Proceedings of the American Philological Association*, XXX (1899), cii.

Report of Committee on College Entrance Requirements. In *Proceedings of the American Philological Association*, XLI (1910).

Report of Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education.

There is clear evidence that most teachers of secondary Latin desire greater freedom of choice as to the Latin authors to be read. Information from many sources indicates that, while teachers are practically unanimous in their opinion that the secondary course should include reading from Caesar, Cicero and Vergil, only a very small minority favor restricting the reading solely to these three authors, or at any rate to those parts of these authors prescribed in the present standard course.

One question in the questionnaire sent to members of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States⁷⁶ reads: "If you would make no omissions in quantity, would you make substitutions (in the present standard course)?" Eighty-seven per cent of the secondary teachers answering this question returned an unqualified "yes." The substitutes⁷⁷ most commonly recommended were: selections from Nepos or from Caesar's Gallic War V-VII for parts of Books I-IV, some of Cicero's letters or essays, selections from Ovid for one or more of Cicero's orations, and selections from Ovid for one or more books of Vergil's Aeneid.

A similar desire for a wider range of choice is expressed by the teachers who answered the general questionnaire and the special questionnaires on reading content, and by many who took part in the round-table discussions.

We may now consider to what extent this freedom of choice recommended by various committees and clearly desired by the majority of teachers has found expression in the regulations of the College Entrance Examination Board and in college entrance requirements; and then to ascertain to what

⁷⁶ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

⁷⁷ A number of teachers evidently understood that the question included the possible substitution of non-classical Latin for a part of Caesar. The most commonly mentioned substitutes of this type of reading were Ritchie's *Fabulae Faciles* and Lhomond's *Viri Romae*.

extent teachers of Latin have availed themselves of any freedom of choice allowed by the Board or the colleges.

The regulations of the College Entrance Examination Board with reference to the amount and range of reading required are:⁷⁸

1. The Latin reading, without regard to the prescription of particular authors and works, shall not be less *in amount* than Caesar, Gallic War, I-IV; Cicero, the orations against Catiline, for the Manilian Law, and for Archias; Vergil, Aeneid, I-VI.
2. The amount of reading specified above shall be selected by the schools from the following authors and works: Caesar (Gallic War and Civil War) and Nepos (Lives); Cicero (orations, letters and De Senectute) and Sallust (Catiline and Jugurthine War); Vergil (Bucolics, Georgics and Aeneid) and Ovid (Metamorphoses, Fasti and Tristia).

The Adams study⁷⁹ shows that most of the colleges which make prescriptions as to the kind and amount of Latin to be offered for college entrance accept the modification in kind described in paragraph 2 above and that 17% of the colleges included in the study place no limitations whatever on the authors or works to be read.

Nevertheless, the information gathered from a large number of schools in various parts of the country indicates that comparatively few schools in actual practice deviate to any considerable extent from the present standard course in the selections read. The Colthurst study,⁸⁰ which includes representative schools in Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota and South Dakota, shows that of

⁷⁸ See Document 101 (August 1, 1919) of the College Entrance Examination Board.

⁷⁹ See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 15.

⁸⁰ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

the schools which reported having read an amount equivalent to that prescribed in the standard course, 83% read during the second year the first four books of the Gallic War only and in order, and that the remaining 17% read selections from the Gallic War only. No school reported reading selections from Nepos or from Caesar's Civil War. The same study shows that of the schools which reported having read during the third year an amount equivalent to that contained in the standard course, 68% read Cicero's Catilines I-IV, the Manilian Law and Archias, while 23% read selections from other works of Cicero and 10% read selections from Ovid. This study also shows that of those schools reporting that the amount of reading done during the fourth year was equivalent in amount to six books of Vergil, 98% read the Aeneid I-VI only, while 2% substituted selections from Ovid for a part of the Aeneid. The Jones study,⁸¹ giving similar information for the schools of Ohio and Pennsylvania, shows that of the schools which report having read in the second, third and fourth years an amount equivalent to the standard course, 86% read precisely the content of the present standard course during the second year, 83% during the third year and 95% during the fourth year.

The replies of the teachers who in the general questionnaire reported reading during the second, third and fourth years an amount equivalent to the standard course, give further evidence concerning the actual practice of the schools. Of the 365 schools which reported that they read in the second year the equivalent of the standard course, 83% read Caesar's Gallic War I-IV, 8% read selections from Caesar's Gallic War I-VII, 1% read selections from Nepos, while 1 school read selections from Caesar's Civil War, 1 school read selections from Ovid, and no school read selections from any other author. Of the 376 schools which reported that they read in

⁸¹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

the third year the equivalent of the standard course, 83% read Cicero's Catilines, Manilian Law and Archias, 7% read other orations of Cicero or selections from other orations, 3% read selections from the letters of Cicero, 3% read selections from Ovid, and 7% read selections from other authors (Sallust, Caesar or Vergil). Of the 245 schools which reported that they read in the fourth year the equivalent of the standard course, 63% read Vergil's Aeneid I-VI, 33% read selections from Ovid, 2% read selections from Aeneid I-XII, and 4% read selections from other authors.

Of the teachers answering the general questionnaire who reported that they read Ovid during the second, third or fourth years, 70% reported having read those selections from Ovid which are contained in the prescriptions of the College Entrance Examination Board for 1923, 1924 and 1925, while 14% reported reading more and 15% reported reading less than this amount. Of teachers reporting that they read Ovid in the fourth year, 75% stated that Ovid had been substituted for an equivalent amount of Vergil.

It is a fair inference from these facts that the reading of Ovid in the majority of schools is not at present an expression of freedom of choice, but rather the result of a definite prescription both in kind and amount, and that under present conditions the majority of teachers may be expected to deviate from the present standard course only under influence from some external source, such as the College Entrance Examination Board.

It is clear that the practice of the majority of schools in the matter of variety in books and authors read is not in harmony either with the expressed wishes of teachers or with the definite recommendations of previous committees as embodied in present college entrance requirements and in the prescriptions of the College Entrance Examination Board. While it

is true that those prescriptions set a very definite limit to the amount of freedom which teachers may exercise in their choice of reading material, only a comparatively small number of secondary teachers seem to have taken advantage of the freedom actually provided.

The question immediately arises as to why the freedom apparently available has not been exercised. The opinions of teachers are quite definite as to the causes which restrain their freedom of choice. One question in the questionnaire sent to members of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States was concerned directly with the individual teacher's freedom of choice in the matter of reading material. To the question, "Have teachers of Latin in secondary schools had in fact any freedom in the choice of reading material, that is, any opportunity to shape their own courses?", 57% of the 88 secondary teachers answering this question returned an unqualified "no"; 24% said "yes," but indicated that this freedom was limited in range to that allowed by the College Entrance Examination Board, college entrance requirements, state courses of study, or prescribed text-books; 10% returned an unqualified "yes"; and 8% said "yes, to some extent." Of those who returned a negative answer 80% mentioned college entrance requirements and the entrance examinations among the causes of this lack of freedom, 12% mentioned text-book adoptions, and 12% mentioned lack of suitable text-books containing desirable material other than that found in the present standard course.

A special ballot⁸² taken at a meeting of the Ohio Classical Conference November 17, 1923, shows that of 47 secondary teachers voting 68% believed that teachers of Latin in the secondary schools have not in fact had any freedom in the choice of reading material. The limitations on this freedom most frequently mentioned are college entrance requirements,

⁸² See Part II, Chapter III, Section 5.

local or state courses of study, text-book adoptions, and teachers' familiarity with text-books which follow the standard course.

It is evident, therefore, that either there are factors present in the college entrance requirements which in actual practice inhibit the freedom of choice apparently granted in these requirements or that there are certain external influences which inhibit freedom or that teachers themselves have been at fault in not using the freedom available. Accordingly, it is necessary, first, to discover any causes which have actually restrained the freedom of choice now apparently provided and thus have prevented teachers from making free use of it, and second, to make such recommendations as will enable the present theoretical freedom to become effective in fact and will also encourage teachers to exercise the freedom of choice recommended in this report.

We believe that the failure of teachers to use the freedom theoretically permitted is largely due to the *amount* of intensive reading required in the present standard course. As has been pointed out, teachers generally consider the present amount excessive and have much difficulty in completing it. There is evidence from many sources to show that many teachers feel that since the present standard course fully satisfies college requirements both in *kind* and *amount*, they are more certain to get over the *amount* of ground if they confine themselves to the present standard course, containing, as it does, the reading with which they are most familiar and which, because of their repeated experience in teaching it, they can get over more rapidly than they could in teaching relatively unfamiliar material. Customary means and methods, employed as a result of long experience with the familiar content of the standard course, would not be so immediately effective if new material were used. Hence there has developed a natural and obviously general tendency to "play safe" and

to read only the authors and selections included in the standard course. This is natural and often excusable in the present situation; but the situation needs to be changed. Our interpretation is supported by the fact that of those schools reporting having read during the second and third years an amount less than that contained in the standard course, 23% read in the second year and 27% read in the third year material not included in the present standard course. These percentages indicate a larger variety in the choice of books read than was found in schools reading in the second and third years amounts equivalent to the present standard course. It is of interest to note in this connection that the Latin courses in English schools which require the careful reading of much less classical Latin than is required in American schools are characterized by a large variety in the reading.

In our opinion the tendency to follow the present standard course is further strengthened by the fact that the definition of both the *amount* and the *kind* of material to be read is almost universally stated in terms of the present course. This form of statement inevitably suggests to teachers that the simplest and surest method of meeting college entrance requirements is by conforming to the standard course in *kind* as well as in amount. The failure to state the definition of requirements in some less sharply restricted form puts an actual premium upon inertia, inasmuch as it places upon the teacher the entire pressure of deciding just what is "equivalent in kind and amount" to any part of the standard course for which he may desire to find a substitute. Teachers thus unfairly deterred from leaving the beaten path may naturally come to regard Caesar's Gallic War I-IV, for example, as its own most easily discovered "equivalent" in kind as well as in amount.

It further appears that the various forces tending to produce conformity to the standard course are particularly

potent in the second year. Here especially the theoretical freedom of choice afforded by college entrance requirements is largely illusory. A choice between Caesar's Gallic War and Civil War has not presented itself to teachers as constituting any real choice at all. Not enough variety of style, theme or personality is involved, and an extensive study of school programmes shows that substitutions of the Civil War for the Gallic War are very rare. For a different reason the alternative presented by Nepos' Lives has also proved generally unacceptable. Teachers who have tried reading the Lives generally agree that Nepos is more difficult than Caesar. Thus freedom of choice in the second year has been practically limited to the first four books of Caesar or to selections from the whole seven books equivalent in amount.

Teachers further indicate that they are handicapped in their desire to depart from the standard course by the undeniable fact that books based upon this course are on the whole better organized than those involving deviations from it. This operates to strengthen the tendency of teachers to keep on using the same material.

Many teachers admit that part of the responsibility for this tendency falls upon themselves. Lack of initiative and failure to take note of what the college requirements actually permit are the specific things admitted by teachers. The heavy teaching load and extra-curriculum duties are also mentioned as contributing factors. A lack of acquaintance on the part of many teachers with a wide range of Latin literature and the temptation to restrict their own reading of Latin to the content required for class-room work are other factors mentioned. In the O'Shea study referred to in the previous chapter it was found that only 30% of the teachers reporting had in the preceding twelve months read any Latin not previously read by them. Other potent factors which in the opinion of teachers encourage literal conformity to the standard course

are state and local courses of study, prescribed text-books, and the desire or practical necessity for uniformity within a given school system.

All these retarding influences have strengthened and extended a practice which had developed in this country previous to the action of any national committee on the subject, and the reading of the first four books of Caesar, the four Catilines, the Manilian Law and Archias, and the first six books of the Aeneid has become a firmly fixed tradition in the minds of school administrators, of parents, and even of pupils. This definiteness is in one way an element of strength, but its invariability is an element of weakness.

*Section 4. General Recommendations in Regard to the
Content of the Course*

On the basis of the evidence considered in the foregoing pages we make the following recommendations with reference to the reorganization of the content of the four-year secondary school course in Latin:

1. That the formal study of the elements of language during the first year be reduced by the postponement of many forms and principles of syntax until later in the course; that the formal study of some of these forms and principles be omitted entirely from the secondary course; and that in general the functional rather than the formal knowledge of these elements be emphasized throughout the course.
2. That the vocabulary, forms and principles of syntax to be learned in each successive year of the course be selected in such a way as to provide conditions most favorable for developing progressive power to read and understand Latin and for attaining the ultimate objectives which teachers regard as valid for their pupils.
3. That not less than 80 pages of easy, well-graduated and

attractive Latin reading material be introduced into the course, beginning at the earliest possible point and continuing at least through the third semester.

4. That this easy reading material should be such as to contribute both to the progressive development of power to read and understand Latin and to the attainment of the historical-cultural objectives which teachers regard as valid for their pupils.
5. That practice in writing Latin be continued throughout the first, second and third years. It may well be omitted from the work of the fourth year in order to allow full time for the reading.
6. That the amount of classical Latin authors to be read in the standard four-year course shall be not less than 35 pages of Teubner text in the second year, 60 pages in the third year, and 100 pages in the fourth year.⁸³
7. That there be enough freedom of choice in the Latin authors to be read to make it easily practicable for teachers to select the reading material which in their judgment will provide the best medium for attaining during the secondary course the historical-cultural objectives which they regard as valid for their pupils.
8. That such additional material of instruction be introduced into the course as will provide for fuller attainment of various ultimate objectives of the study of Latin.

*Section 5. Criteria for the Selection of Reading Content,
Vocabulary, Syntax and Forms*

A. READING CONTENT

The reading of continuous Latin should begin at the ear-

⁸³ In terms of Teubner text (37 lines to the page) the classical Latin in the present standard course amounts to 80 pages of Caesar, 82 pages of Cicero and 128 pages of Vergil.

liest possible moment consistent with whatever method may be employed in the introductory stages of the study of Latin. We believe that for at least the first three semesters a large amount of simple well-graded easy Latin should be included in the course and that the first classical author should not be introduced, at least in unmodified form, before the beginning of the fourth semester.

1. *Easy Latin*

The Latin to be read before the first classical author is taken up should be such as to provide the most favorable conditions for progressive development of power to read Latin and for attainment of the historical-cultural objectives which teachers consider valid for their pupils and which depend in large part upon the presence of an appropriate content in the Latin reading material.

We have already defined the reading of Latin as the comprehension of thought directly through the Latin as it stands, whether or not this comprehension is followed by translation into English. Attention has also been called to the fact that while this definition has been generally accepted in theory, attainment of the ability to read Latin in this sense has not been generally realized in the schools. It is clear that if actual practice is to be made consistent with the accepted theory, a much more vigorous and persistent effort must be made to develop in the pupil the ability to read Latin as Latin, meaning thereby Latin as it stands in its Latin order, and that this effort must express itself first of all in the selection of reading material appropriate both in kind and amount to the development of this ability.

Reading Latin as Latin of course implies that at the start of his Latin study the pupil must acquire a small initial stock of words before he can pass on to reading and understanding Latin phrases and sentences. One or more of the following

ways of doing this will be found serviceable according to circumstances:

1. Developing this initial stock of words from Latin words already familiar to pupils from their English reading.
2. Developing this initial stock through oral practice.
3. Giving the pupils the meaning of these words.

When this earliest start has been made and even a small number of Latin words is understood, the pupil should at once begin to form the habit of inferring the probable meanings of new Latin words in the manner described in Chapter V (on method). In this way his consciousness of Latin as Latin will begin to expand and with it his power to use Latin as Latin.

The most plausible explanation of the contradiction between theory and practice seems to lie in the fact that many teachers believe the present required reading can be covered more rapidly if the pupil is allowed to attack the Latin sentence by the analytical method (i.e., by looking first for the subject and translating that, then for the verb and translating that, etc.) than if he is first carefully trained to take in the thought of the Latin phrase or sentence in the Latin order before translating it into English.

By recommending a longer approach to the first classical author and a reduction in the amount of classical Latin to be read intensively we have sought to relieve the pressure for time which is believed to be largely responsible for the present tendency to follow the line of least resistance. We also believe that if the pupil through extended practice with easy reading material has once acquired proper habits of reading, he will be able to read the classical Latin included in the secondary course with much greater appreciation and pleasure than the ordinary pupil does under methods commonly used at present. Furthermore, if methods other than translation are more generally employed by teachers for testing the pupil's understanding of what he has read and if practice in translating

into English is limited to selected portions of the text studied, it will then be possible to insist upon a better quality of English both in oral and in written translation. We are convinced that as a result of the modifications suggested above a much larger proportion of pupils will continue the study of Latin through the four years of the secondary course and come up to college with a greater desire to continue the subject and with an ability to read Latin with much greater facility than is the case under present methods.

Accordingly, the first criterion to be employed in the selection of easy reading material is its relative value as a medium for developing the power to read Latin. This reading material should be abundant, repetitious, simple and varied in form, attractive in its content, and carefully adapted to the capacity of young boys and girls.

Furthermore, the character of this easy Latin should be suitable for developing power to read the best classical Latin authors. It should, therefore, from the beginning conform to the genius of the Latin language, should illustrate the syncretical character of Latin, and should embody the essential problems of Latin word order and suspense of thought. It should be true Latin, even when taken from outside the classical period. Anglicized Latin will not provide a suitable medium for developing power to read *Latin*. Finally, the gradual development of the sentence as a whole should receive careful treatment. The first brief sentences should advance not merely in length, but in complexity, slowly approaching the structure of the developed periodic Latin sentence. If pupils are led by easy stages, with abundance of material at each stage, finally to apprehend well developed sentences analogous to those found in the best classical authors, we believe that much of the painful floundering now frequently characterizing the first attempt to read a classical author will be obviated. Moreover, if there is from the start full oral

practice in reading this easy Latin aloud, first slowly and then a little faster, it will go far to dispel early the auditional dread of saying or reading Latin aloud, now so much in evidence.

The second criterion for the selection of easy reading material is that the subject matter should from the first deal mainly with themes readily adaptable to the attainment of the historical-cultural objectives. In our opinion the reading content should include the following kinds of material:

Classical mythology.

Roman traditions and dramatic events in Roman history.

Biographical sketches.

Home life of the Romans.

Ideas of the Romans about their environment.

Examples of Roman wit and wisdom.

Anecdotes and fables illustrative of Roman life and thought, particularly those which have a moral and embody the characteristic virtues of the Romans.

Legends and stories heroic in character, such as were used by the Romans themselves to inculcate true standards of conduct, which because of their heroic quality appeal to the imagination of youth.

Stories on ancient themes which have a human appeal analogous to that found in stories used in teaching modern foreign languages.

By a careful selection of reading material of this sort a most valuable contribution may be made through the medium of the reading of the first two years to the pupil's acquaintance with at least a few important historical characters and with some of the most inspiring incidents in Roman history, to his general fund of information about the history, mythology, ideas and customs of the Greeks and Romans, and to his appreciation of the immense influence of Roman civilization.

We realize that because of the common custom of taking up Caesar at the beginning of the third semester and the consequent lack of any widespread demand for an abundant supply of easy "made" or adapted Latin, a supply of well-graded reading material sufficiently large to encourage careful selection by teachers on the basis of the criteria proposed above has not yet been produced in this country and made easily available. However, authors of several first-year and second-year books recently published in this country have emphasized the importance of reading continuous easy Latin, and have included in their books a considerable amount of "made" or adapted Latin. In England, where easy reading material has long supplied the basis for instruction in Latin for the earlier years of the course, a large and varied supply of books has appeared containing very suitable reading of this sort.

We believe that from these various sources a supply of easy reading material sufficient for three or four semesters can be obtained.⁸⁴ Furthermore, we are satisfied that with wider encouragement given to the use of such material and consequent growth in the demand for it, the production and publication of an abundant supply of easy and varied reading material suitable to the needs of American schools may be confidently expected.

2. Classical Authors

In selecting the classical authors to be included in the course the same two criteria should be employed as in the selection of easy Latin reading, that is, the suitability of the Latin as a medium for the progressive development of power to read and understand Latin and the suitability of the con-

⁸⁴ A list of books containing easy reading material, together with a brief description of the character of the material, will be found on pages 144-150.

tent for the development of the historical-cultural objectives. It has been shown that the majority of teachers at the present time wish to begin the first classical author at the beginning of the fourth semester. A considerable minority wish to begin the first classical author earlier, and a smaller minority wish to postpone the first classical author to the fifth semester. It is altogether desirable that there should be reasonable freedom of action in this matter as well as in the choice of authors to be read. The decisive consideration, which determines the time at which the first Latin author should be taken up by any given class, is not an arbitrary number of semesters, but the attainment by the pupils of actual power to read the easier Latin with some degree of facility. With some classes this will come earlier and with others later. In making recommendations for a standard four-year course we assume that the reading of the first classical author will not ordinarily be taken up before the beginning of the fourth semester.

The following factors, which relate to the first criterion mentioned above, are in the judgment of the teachers who filled out the general questionnaire the most important in the selection of reading material to be included in the secondary course:

The extent to which the material is adapted in difficulty to the ability of the pupil.

The suitability of the thought-content to the maturity of the pupil.

The suitability of the material for creating in the pupil a sense of progress in the mastery of the language.

The attractiveness of the material to the pupil.

The importance of selecting reading appropriate to the attainment of the historical-cultural objectives has been repeatedly pointed out earlier in this chapter. Over 75% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire expressed the

opinion that the content of the Latin material included in the present course does not provide adequately for the study of topics relating to these objectives. While collateral reading in English, which is recommended by practically all the teachers as needed to supplement the Latin texts, will be desirable in any case, we believe that teachers should be free to select from Latin literature as a whole the material they believe will make the greatest direct contribution to the attainment of the historical-cultural objectives which they regard as valid for their pupils.

Among the general topics which should be developed through reading material from classical authors adaptable to this end are the following:

The attainments of the Romans in government, politics, law, commerce, economics, literature and art.

Religious ideas and practical philosophy of the Romans.

Characteristic Roman virtues.

Private and public life of the Romans.

History and traditions of the Romans, including selections from narrative, oratorical, poetic and biographical literature.

The continuity of Graeco-Roman civilization and its influence upon western civilization.

Significance of Rome as a whole, especially as a governing state and a consequent stimulus to the imagination of mankind.

The selection from available classical literature of material suitable both for the progressive development of power to read Latin and for the full attainment of the historical-cultural objectives detailed above will ultimately involve a considerable departure from the present common practice of restricting the pupil's acquaintance with Latin literature to particular works of three authors. Of course it is probable

that the greater part of the material will naturally be taken from a small number of authors, and that Caesar, Cicero and Vergil will continue to form a substantial nucleus of the secondary course. We strongly recommend that in choosing the material from these or other authors every effort be made to select for intensive reading such portions as provide the best medium for developing the general topics mentioned above.

It is obvious, furthermore, that any given author presents peculiar opportunities for emphasis upon special aspects of Roman life and thought. Care should therefore be taken, first, to determine which of the aspects presented by a given author should be emphasized in actual teaching and, second, to make such selections from that author as will provide the best opportunity for this emphasis. If, for example, Ovid is taken as one of the authors, we recommend that in addition to the general topics mentioned above an important criterion in selecting the portions to be read is suitability for developing such special topics as the following:

The Roman point of view with reference to the gods and to religious and moral questions in general.

Roman and Greek myths which have become part of the common stock of modern thought and expression.

The influence of the ancient myth upon English literature and upon medieval and modern art.

The influence of Greece upon Roman ideas.

Or, again, if the author being read is Caesar, the portions selected for reading should be those which best illustrate such special topics as:

The personality of Caesar as revealed in his writing.

The German invasions as types of westward migration.

The civilization of the early Gauls, Germans and Britons.

The political significance of the Gallic campaigns.

Ancient methods of warfare.

3. *Collateral Reading in English*

The desirability of making collateral reading in English an integral part of the course has already been mentioned. Ninety-six per cent of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire expressed the opinion that supplementary material in English should be included in the course for the purpose of developing more effectively the historical-cultural values of Latin. Such reading should develop naturally from the contacts established through the content of the Latin reading material itself. The topics to be emphasized at any stage of the pupil's progress should therefore be identical in large measure with the topics to be included in the Latin reading content as outlined in the two preceding sections.

B. VOCABULARY

The vocabulary to be thoroughly mastered during each year of the course should be selected for the purpose of providing the conditions most favorable both for the progressive development of power to read and understand Latin and for attainment of the ultimate objectives which teachers consider valid for their pupils and which depend for their attainment upon vocabulary content.

For the purpose of developing power to read Latin frequency of occurrence in the Latin to be read is the most important factor in the selection of the vocabulary to be emphasized.⁸⁵ Another important factor is suitability for oral use in the class-room.

The extent to which the various ultimate objectives will affect the selection of the most important vocabulary to be mastered will depend upon the relative importance attached to these objectives; and this will vary in different years, and

⁸⁵ See Part V, *Latin Word-Count*, based upon frequency of occurrence in classical Latin authors commonly read in high school and college. See also Lodge's *Vocabulary of High School Latin*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College (1907).

with individual schools and teachers. There is, however, general agreement that the one most important ultimate objective which is dependent upon vocabulary for attainment is increased ability to understand the exact meaning of English words derived directly or indirectly from Latin and increased accuracy in their use. The Thorndike-Grinstead word-count will provide teachers with a list of English words derived from Latin arranged according to frequency of occurrence in English reading and with a list of Latin words which are most serviceable for interpreting these words.⁸⁶ Other ultimate objectives which should be considered in the selection of vocabulary are:

Increased ability to understand Latin words, phrases, abbreviations and quotations occurring in English.⁸⁷

Increased ability to spell English words of Latin derivation.⁸⁸

Increased ability to learn other foreign languages, especially French, Spanish and Italian.⁸⁹

Increased ability to learn the technical and semi-technical terms of Latin origin employed in other school studies and in the arts, sciences and professions.⁹⁰

⁸⁶ See Part IV, the Grinstead-Thorndike *Derivative Lexicon*, based on frequency of occurrence in English. See also Part VI, the Smalley *Derivative Greek and Latin Lexicon*, based on an etymological analysis of Murray's New English Dictionary.

⁸⁷ For a list of Latin words, phrases, etc., most commonly occurring in English, and for a list of Latin words most important for an understanding of them see Part II, Appendix C.

⁸⁸ For a list of English words the spelling of which may be helped by a knowledge of Latin and for a list of Latin words which have the greatest capacity to assist in the spelling of these English words see Part II, Appendix B.

⁸⁹ For a list of French words most commonly occurring in French reading and for a list of Latin words which have the greatest capacity to assist in the learning of these French words see Part II, Appendix D.

⁹⁰ For a list of technical and semi-technical terms used in various school subjects and for a list of Latin words which give the most help in learning these technical terms see Part II, Appendix A.

Our recommendations with regard to the reading content of the first two semesters involve a reading experience with a larger vocabulary than is commonly included in the lesson vocabularies and in the accompanying exercises of the typical beginners' book.⁹¹ This is inevitable, unless the reading content is to be so meager as to fail to supply pupils with a genuine reading experience and so restricted in range as to be neither attractive nor instructive. However, it is not to be expected that any greater proportion of these words will be included among those to be thoroughly mastered than is true of the new words met in the later reading of classical authors. The words which a pupil meets in his reading of Latin at any stage fall roughly into three groups: (1) words which occur but rarely and the meaning of which must be determined merely for the purpose of interpreting the particular passages in which they occur, but without an attempt to retain them permanently; (2) words which occur rather frequently and which should be made a part of the pupil's passive or reading vocabulary; and (3) words which are sufficiently important to demand a thorough mastery, because of their frequent use in Latin or because of their serviceability for application to English or other languages.

C. SYNTAX

The principles of syntax to be taught during the successive stages of the course should be selected and distributed so as to provide conditions most favorable for attainment of progressive power to read and understand Latin and for attainment of the ultimate objectives which teachers consider

⁹¹ The desirability of introducing a wider reading vocabulary into beginners' books is now widely recognized. An examination of the five most recently published beginners' books, each of which contains a considerable amount of connected Latin reading, shows an average total reading vocabulary of about 1500 words, although the number of words set for memorization does not in any of these books exceed 600.

valid for their pupils and which are dependent for their attainment upon a knowledge of particular principles of syntax

We believe the application of the first criterion involves a considerable reduction in the number of syntactical principles to be included in the work of the first two semesters and an emphasis upon functional rather than upon formal knowledge of the principles taught. In our judgment the conscious identification and labeling of constructions is of value for the development of ability to read Latin only in so far as it demonstrably assists pupils to comprehend the thought of the Latin sentence being read. The syntactical constructions occurring in the material read at any stage need not be limited to those principles which have been formally taught. A working knowledge of the general principles of agreement and of a few fundamental noun and verb constructions will provide the pupil with sufficient syntactical equipment for a considerable reading experience. With the careful guidance of the teacher in an observant use of the context the pupil can in many cases see how to solve the difficulties presented by an unfamiliar case or mood construction, and in such instances the progress of the pupil through the Latin sentence is apt to be hindered rather than aided by an interruption of the current thought for the sake of syntactical analysis. When, however, a difficulty arises in the interpretation of the sentence which cannot be solved without an understanding of the syntactical principle involved, the emerging practical difficulty of interpreting the sentence furnishes an immediate incentive for an explanation of the principle, and thus a readier and surer grasp of the principle is likely to result than is the case when the principle is presented without immediate need for its use, but apparently alone and for its own sake and before the pupil has had a reading experience sufficient to serve as a background for discovering the use of the principle involved.

We believe that the proposed reduction in the number of

syntactical principles to be mastered in the work of the first two semesters and an emphasis upon functional rather than formal knowledge will result both in greater ability to make practical use of the principles considered essential and in a better grasp of the principles themselves than is commonly secured at present.

An analysis of the results of the Pressey test⁹² shows at the end of the second semester for the country as a whole the following averages in a functional knowledge⁹³ of the noun, pronoun and adjective constructions⁹⁴ commonly included in the work of the first year.

Accusative of places to which with <i>ad</i>	71%
Ablative of manner with <i>cum</i>	69%
Ablative of accompaniment with <i>cum</i>	66%
Accusative of direct object	65%
Genitive of the whole (partitive)	63%
Dative of indirect object	62%
Ablative of agent	61%
Adjective in direct agreement	57%
Ablative of place where with <i>in</i>	55%
Ablative of time at which	54%
Noun in apposition	54%
Accusative of duration	53%
Nominative in the predicate with <i>est</i>	53%
Ablative of place from which with <i>ex</i>	51%
Genitive of possession	51%
Ablative of means	48%
Accusative subject of an infinitive	48%

⁹² See Part II, Chapter I, Section 5.

⁹³ The test employed does not involve a knowledge of technical names of constructions but the ability to select from four choices offered the Latin word or phrase which correctly expresses the syntactical principle presented in English.

⁹⁴ The terminology employed in the list of constructions is in general that recommended in the Report of the Joint Committee of Fifteen on Grammatical Nomenclature appointed by the National Education Association, the Modern Language Association of America, and the American Philological Association.

Genitive of description or quality	48%
Dative of reference or concern	45%
Ablative of cause	44%
Adjective in predicate agreement	43%
Dative of purpose (<i>auxilio</i> and <i>praesidio</i>)	42%
Accusative in the predicate	37%
Ablative absolute	34%
Ablative of degree	34%
Ablative of respect	33%
Nominative in the predicate with <i>factus est</i>	28%
Ablative of comparison	27%
Dative with adjectives (<i>similis</i>)	27%
Dative with special verbs (<i>persuadeo</i> and <i>credo</i>)	26%
Dative of possession	25%
Ablative with special verbs (<i>utor</i>)	25%

A similar analysis of the results of the Godsey test,⁹⁵ also a multiple-choice test, shows at the end of the second semester the following averages in a functional knowledge of verb constructions commonly included in the work of the first year :

Subjunctive in a clause of purpose (negative).	30%
Subjunctive in a relative clause of purpose	27%
Subjunctive in a conditional sentence contrary to fact	27%
Agreement of verb with subject (perfect passive indicative)	26%
Subjunctive in exhortation or command	24%
Subjunctive in a clause of result	23%
Subjunctive in a clause of cause	23%
Infinitive in indirect statement	20%
Passive periphrastic	17%
Gerundive construction	17%
Subjunctive in a clause of fear	16%
Subjunctive in a substantive volitive clause.	8%
Subjunctive in an indirect question	4%

The common practice of including in the work of the first two semesters in Latin the formal study of so large a number of principles of syntax is apparently based on the assumption

⁹⁵ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 6.

that a formal knowledge of all these principles is a prerequisite to the reading of a continuous Latin text. It is evident from the two lists given above that the ordinary pupil, however, does in fact undertake the reading of classical Latin before he acquires anything approaching sufficient mastery of either formal or functional syntax. The tabulations given above show that many pupils who take up the reading of a classical author at the beginning of the third semester do so with a thorough mastery of few or none of the principles of noun syntax, and with a knowledge of verb syntax that is almost negligible.

The extent to which the various ultimate objectives will affect the distribution and emphasizing of syntactical principles will depend upon the relative importance attached to these objectives and this will vary in different years and with individual schools and teachers. We believe, however, that the decisive factor determining the point at which a syntactical principle should be taught is its serviceability for assisting directly in interpreting the thought of the Latin being read or indirectly through its usefulness for oral or written work, and that while its serviceability for applying a knowledge of Latin grammar to other related fields should be used to the fullest extent, this function should not be permitted to hasten the introduction of principles not actually required for the interpretation of the thought of the Latin text being read or to hasten the introduction of Latin reading material involving those principles, unless this material is clearly suitable for other purposes also. It is further clear that only those syntactical principles which have been thoroughly grasped in connection with the study of Latin itself are likely to contribute to the attainment of other objectives.

There is general agreement that the one most important ultimate objective which is dependent for attainment upon a knowledge of Latin syntactical principles is increased knowl-

edge of the principles of English grammar and an increased ability to speak and write grammatically correct English. The satisfactory attainment of this last named objective involves knowledge on the part of the teacher of what grammatical principles learned in Latin are in fact applicable to English and what grammatical errors in English are susceptible to correction through the application of grammatical principles learned in Latin.⁹⁶

Other objectives which should be considered in selecting grammatical principles for particular emphasis are an increased ability to learn other foreign languages, and an elementary knowledge of the general principles of language structure.

We recommend that the principles of syntax taught during the first semester should be limited to a very few repeatedly occurring noun, verb and adjective constructions, including the general principles of agreement and the commoner uses of the accusative and ablative cases with prepositions; that the many noun and verb constructions now commonly included in the work of the first year be distributed over the work of the later semesters; and that in particular the teaching of the uses of the subjunctive should not be undertaken before the third semester.

D. FORMS

The inflectional forms to be included in the secondary course should be selected and their assignment to various semesters of the course should be determined solely on the basis of the extent to which they contribute to the progressive development of power to read and understand Latin. The ultimate objectives which depend for attainment upon an application

⁹⁶ For a list of grammatical principles common to Latin and English and for a list of common grammatical errors in English remediable through Latin see Part II, Appendix E.

in other fields of a knowledge of Latin forms are not of sufficient importance to affect the distribution of inflectional forms by semesters.

The application of this criterion involves in our judgment a reduction in the number of forms to be included in the work of the first two semesters, a more gradual introduction of these forms than is the common practice at present, provision for a repeated reading experience with the forms to be learned, and in general an emphasis upon functional rather than formal knowledge both in the learning of these forms and in subsequent drill upon them. We wish to emphasize our belief that those forms which are set for learning should be so thoroughly mastered that a recognition of a given inflectional ending and of the grammatical ideas possible for that ending will become practically automatic.

Insistence upon a thorough mastery of the forms set for learning does not, however, require that the forms to be used in the reading material should be limited to those already learned, or that the pupil should be halted in his progress through a Latin sentence by the appearance of some unknown form. It will not be necessary, for example, to postpone the use of an accusative singular of the fourth or fifth declension until all the other forms of those declensions have been mastered, nor will it be necessary to avoid entirely the use of the subjunctive until the forms of the subjunctive have been taught. This appearance at times of new forms in the reading before they are set for learning not only permits a desirable freedom in the selection of reading material but by creating a sense of need for new knowledge furnishes a motive for a better mastery of the forms when they are finally taken up.⁹⁷

⁹⁷ "If properly taught, the interest in the reading matter would be so great and the relation of the grammatical work to that reading matter would be so direct and clear that an adequate motive for mastering the necessary technicalities of grammar would be supplied." W. E. Foster in "The Preliminary Statement of the Chairman of the Committee on

We believe that the proposed reduction in the number of forms to be learned in the first two semesters and a greater emphasis on a functional knowledge of these forms will result in an earlier and surer mastery of the essential inflectional forms than is commonly the case at present. It has already been pointed out that a 75% average in a functional knowledge of verb-forms, as measured by the Tyler-Pressey test, is not attained in the country as a whole until the sixth semester of the four-year course. The verb-forms used in the Tyler-Pressey test are limited to those commonly included in the work of the first year. A detailed analysis of results of this test shows at the end of the second semester the following averages for the country as a whole in a functional knowledge⁹⁸ of the various verb-forms included in the test:

fuerunt	79%	mittetis	51%
mittebamini	79%	moneberis	49%
moti erant	73%	laudavisse	48%
audiverant	71%	capti sunt	48%
moveri	70%	laudares	47%
potest	70%	sit	46%
cepit	70%	audiens	46%
missus erit	68%	auditus esset	44%
movebam	67%	laudate	44%
volumus	66%	audivisses	38%
pugnaverunt	65%	audiatur	38%
movistis	60%	liceat	34%
audivero	58%	posset	30%
mittuntur	55%	si moverer	29%
pugnemus	55%	capti	21%
movemus	53%	sequentur	16%

Ancient Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association for the Reorganization of Secondary Education," United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, Number 41 (1913).

⁹⁸ The Tyler-Pressey test measures the ability of the pupil to select from four choices offered the English verb or verb-phrase which correctly translates a given Latin verb-form. The test is so constructed as not to involve problems of person or number, nor of vocabulary.

The Briggs study,⁹⁹ based upon results of the Lohr-Latshaw test, which includes the 35 inflectional forms most frequently appearing in 16 first-year Latin books, shows that the ordinary pupil in the high schools tested at the end of one year's study of Latin could give the classification of fewer than 20 of these 35 forms, and that only 4% of the second-semester pupils tested were able to classify correctly all the forms included. The results of a detailed analysis of the scores made in five of the best schools tested, in which the average score was 23.6, leads the author to the following conclusions: "If we assume that ten per cent of these pupils fail of promotion, we find that Latin teachers consider an ability to classify thirteen of the essential thirty-five forms sufficient to justify sending boys and girls on to Caesar. If twenty-five per cent fail, the ability to classify nineteen, or a little more than half, is considered sufficient."¹⁰⁰ It is clear that in spite of the effort commonly made at present to secure a mastery of all the regular inflectional forms before the continuous reading of a classical author is begun, the ordinary pupil does as a matter of fact undertake to read Caesar, Cicero and even Vergil with a hazy knowledge of a good many of the supposedly indispensable forms.

We recommend that an early and thorough functional knowledge of a few of the most important forms be insisted upon as a basis for a fairly extensive reading experience and that the learning of the remainder of the forms determined upon as desirable for the course as a whole be postponed until the needs arising in the later reading supply the compelling motive for their acquisition.

⁹⁹ T. H. Briggs, "The Lohr-Latshaw Latin Test," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (May, 1923), pp. 451-465.

¹⁰⁰ T. H. Briggs, "The Lohr-Latshaw Latin Test," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (May, 1923), p. 457.

*Section 6. Specific Recommendations In Regard to the
Content of the Course*

A. READING

1. *In Latin*

We make the following specific recommendations with reference to the minimum reading content of the four-year course:

First Semester. Not less than 15 pages of continuous easy Latin selected in accordance with the criteria already defined. This material may be selected from one or more beginners' books¹⁰¹ supplemented by selections from such readers as:

Atkinson and Pearce's *Dent's First Latin Book* (an illustrated reader). Dent and Sons, London, 1912.

Godley's *Fables of Orbilius*, Part I (very easy stories with pictures), 22 pages of actual text. Edward Arnold, London.

Paine and Mainwaring's *Primus Annus* (easy stories of Roman life), pages 11-31. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1912.

Paine, Mainwaring and Ryle's *Decem Fabulae* (Latin plays graded in difficulty), pages 7-26. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1912.

Reed's *Julia* (short stories of Roman life), pages 1-16. Macmillan, 1924.

Sonnenschein's *Oro Maritima* (a Latin story for beginners with pictures), pages 23-43. Swan, Sonnenschein and Co., London, 1913.

Spencer's *Scalae Primae* (easy anecdotes and fables with illustrations), 32 pages of continuous text. Bell and Sons, London, 1922.

Second Semester. Not less than 25 pages of continuous easy Latin of somewhat greater difficulty than that read in the first semester, selected in accordance with the criteria already

¹⁰¹ For a list of recently published beginners' books containing continuous reading material see Part II, Appendix G.

defined. This material may be taken from one or more beginner's books, supplemented by selections from such readers as:

Berkeley's *First Latin Reader, Part II* (anecdotes, fables, stories from Greek and Roman history, with pictures), pages 23-47. Blackie and Son, London.

Collar's *Heatley and Kingdon's New Gradatim* (anecdotes), pages 12-96. Ginn and Co., 1895.

Gallup's *Latin Reader* (fables, short stories, and tales of early Rome, with pictures), 42 pages of actual text. American Book Co., 1913.

Godley's *Fables of Orbilius, Part II* (easy stories with pictures), 26 pages of actual text. Edward Arnold, London.

Kirtland's *Ritchie's Fabulae Faciles* (four Greek myths told in Latin), pages 37 (Perseus). Longmans, Green and Company, 1903.

Morton's *Legends of Gods and Heroes* (graded in difficulty and illustrated), pages 1-54. Macmillan and Co., reprinted 1922.

Newman's *Early Latin Plays* (two simple plays on Roman themes), 8 pages of actual text. Bell and Sons, London, 1913.

Oliver's *Mirabilia* (stories on modern themes), 80 pages. Edward Arnold, London.

Paine and Mainwaring's *Primus Annus* (easy stories of Roman life), pages 27-75. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1912.

Paine, Mainwaring and Ryle's *Decem Fabulae* (Latin plays graded in difficulty), pages 27-94. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1912.

Reed's *Julia* (Greek and Roman history and traditions), pages 17-61. Macmillan, 1924.

Sanford and Scott's *Supplementary Latin Readings* (Perseus and Hercules), 23 pages. Scott, Foresman and Co., 1923.

Sonnenchein's *Ora Maritima* (a Latin story for beginners with pictures), pages 43-58. Sonn. Sonnenchein and Co., London, 1913.

The Vulgate Bible (easier and more familiar passages).

Third Semester. Not less than 40 pages of continuous easy made or adapted Latin selected in accordance with the criteria already defined. This material may be taken from beginners' books and second-year books¹⁰² supplemented by selections from such readers as:

Allen's *Tales of Early Rome* (stories adapted from Livy: Romulus and Remus, The Rape of the Sabines, The Horatii and Curatii, The Doom of Mettius Fufetius, How a Slave became King of Rome), 27 pages of actual text. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1899.

Allen's *Tales of the Roman Republic*, Part I. (stories adapted from Livy: Lars Porsena of Clusium, The Belly and the Limbs, The Massacre of the Fabii, Camillus and the Schoolmaster, Camillus and the Gauls), 26 pages of actual text. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1900.

Allen's *Tales of the Roman Republic*, Part II. (stories adapted from Livy: The Caudine Forks, The Siege of Saguntum, Hannibal's Passage of the Rhone, Hannibal's Passage of the Alps), 26 pages of actual text. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1901.

Appleton and Jones' *Puer Romanus* (stories of Roman daily life), 65 pages. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1913.

Appleton and Jones' *Pons Tironum* (stories of Roman daily life, illustrated), 32 pages. Bell and Sons, London, 1914.

Appleton's *Fabulae* (short stories retold from various classical authors, with illustrations), 120 pages. Bell and Sons, London, 1914.

Appleton's *Ludi Persici* (eleven Latin plays), 55 pages. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1921.

Arnold and Pierce's *Cornelia* (incidents from Roman history), 71 pages. Dent and Sons, London, 1912.

¹⁰² For a list of second-year books containing easy made or adapted Latin see Part II, Appendix G.

- Arrowsmith and Knapp's *Lhomond's Viri Romae* (Roman history), 111 pages. American Book Co., 1896.
- Beresford's *First Latin Reader*, Part III (mythology, stories from Greek and Roman history), pages 48-78. Blackie and Son, London.
- Chickering's *First Latin Reader* (Roman history), 142 pages. Scribner's, 1917.
- Clark and Game's *Second Latin* (80 easy selections from medieval and renaissance Latin), 42 pages. Mentzer, Bush and Co., 1924.
- Collar's *Heatley and Kingdon's New Gradatim* (The Argonauts and Ulysses from *Fabulae Faciles*), pages 97-125. Ginn and Co., 1895.
- Collar's *Via Latina* (selections from *Fabulae Faciles* and *Viri Romae*, and fables), 75 pages. Ginn and Co., 1897.
- D'Ooge's *Easy Latin for Sight Reading* (selections from *Fabulae Faciles*, *Viri Romae*, and Aulus Gellius), 180 pages of text. Ginn and Co., 1897.
- D'Ooge's *Lhomond's Viri Romae* (Roman history), 71 pages. Ginn and Co., 1897.
- Edward's *Roman Tales Retold* (stories adapted from various Latin authors), 45 pages. Scott, Foresman and Co., 1924.
- Gallup, *A Latin Reader* (fables, short stories, tales of early Rome with pictures), 42 pages of actual text. American Book Co., 1913.
- Gildersleeve's *Latin Reader* (fables, myths, anecdotes), pages 5-36. University Publishing Co., 1896.
- Greenstock's *Rivington's Single Term Latin Readers*, Second Term, Books II and III (fables, mythology, stories from Greek and Roman history), 19 pages each. Rivington's, London, 1904.
- Kirtland's *Ritchie's Fabulae Faciles* (four Greek myths related in Latin), pages 9-60 (Hercules, The Argonauts, and Ulysses). Longmans, Green and Co., 1903.
- Lowe's *Anecdotes from Pliny's Letters* (simplified and graded selections concerning Roman daily life), 25 pages, Oxford University Press, 1910.
- Lowe's *Caesar in Britain* (simplified text of selections from

- Gallic War, IV and V), 20 pages. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1910.
- Macauley's *Hannibalian War* (simplified Livy), 60 pages. Macmillan and Co., reprinted 1921.
- Mainwaring and Paine's *Secundus Annus* (early Roman history), 35 pages. Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1917.
- Moore's *Porta Latina* (fables of La Fontaine), 33 pages. Ginn and Co., 1915.
- Morton's *Legends of Gods and Heroes* (graded in difficulty and illustrated), pages 55-92. Macmillan and Co., reprinted 1922.
- Nall's *Seven Kings of Rome* (simplified Livy), 46 pages. Macmillan and Co., reprinted 1916.
- Nutting's *First Latin Reader* (stories from early American history, stories retold from Caesar), pages 1-157. American Book Co., 1912
- Nutting's *Junior Latin Plays* (three Latin plays), 33 pages. University of California Press, 1922.
- Paxson's *Two Latin Plays* (A Roman School and A Roman Wedding), 33 pages. Ginn and Co., 1911.
- Rolfe's *Lhomond's Viri Romae* (Roman history), 94 pages. Allyn and Bacon, 1898.
- Ryle's *Olim: Ludi Scaenici* (five short Latin plays), 40 pages. Bell and Sons, London, 1914.
- Schlicher's *Latin Plays* (seven plays on Roman themes), 172 pages. Ginn and Co., 1916.
- Sonnenschein's *Pro Patria* (a sequel to *Ora Maritima*), 46 pages. Swan, Sonnenschein and Co., London.
- Welch and Duffield's *Caesar's Helvetian War* (simplified), 21 pages. Macmillan and Co., reprinted 1919.
- Welch and Duffield's *Caesar's Invasion of Britain* (simplified), 20 pages. Macmillan and Co., 1890.
- Welch and Duffield's *Eutropius' Historia Romana* (simplified), 32 pages. Macmillan and Co., reprinted 1921.
- Wilkinson's *Legends of Ancient Rome* (simplified Livy), 40 pages. Macmillan and Co., reprinted 1922.
- Winboldt's *Dialogues of Roman Life* (house, furniture, dress, school, games, travel, etc.), 103 pages. Bell and Sons, London, 1913.

Teachers who wish to take up the reading of classical Latin in the third semester should substitute the equivalent of not less than 15 pages of Teubner text selected from the authors and works listed under the recommendations for the fourth semester.

Fourth Semester. An amount of classical Latin equivalent to not less than 35 pages of Teubner text selected in accordance with the criteria already defined from such authors and works as:

Aulus Gellius' *Noctes Atticae*.

Caesar's *Gallic War*, Books I-VII.

Caesar's *Civil War*, Books I-III.

Eutropius' *Historia Romana*.

Nepos' *Lives*.

Ovid's *Metamorphoses*.

Phaedrus' *Fables*.

Quintus Curtius Rufus' *Life of Alexander the Great*.

Terence's *Phormio* (Fairclough and Richardson's simplified edition).

Valerius Maximus' *Facta et Dicta Memorabilia*.

Or the reading may be selected from such collections as:

Bice's *Sight Reading in Latin* (selections from Aulus Gellius, Caesar, Cicero, Eutropius, Livy, Nepos, and Pliny). Ginn and Co., 1913.

Dale's *Reges Consulesque Romani* (stories of early Rome selected from the first books of Livy). Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1915.

Duff's *Silva Latina* (a Latin reading book containing 145 brief selections from Catullus, Cicero, Horace, Livy, Lucretius, Martial, Ovid, Pliny, Propertius, Tibullus, and Vergil). Cambridge University Press, 1921.

Greenstock's *Rivington's Single Term Latin Readers*, Books I, II and III (easy selections from Livy). Rivington's, London, 1907.

Petrie's *Latin Reader* (140 short selections from fourteen Latin authors). Oxford University Press, 1918.

Ritchie's *Easy Latin Passages* (252 brief selections from various Latin authors). Longmans, Green and Co., 1914.

Witton's *Dies Romani* (62 selections from various Latin authors) Edward Arnold, London, 1906.

Teachers who wish to continue the use of made or adapted Latin during the fourth semester should read 70 pages selected from such readers as those listed under the recommendations for the third semester.

Fifth and Sixth Semesters. An amount of classical Latin equivalent to not less than 60 pages of Teubner text selected in accordance with the criteria already defined from such authors and works as:

Caesar's *Gallic War*, Books I-VII.

Caesar's *Civil War*, Books I-III.

Cicero's *Orations*, e.g., *Archias*, *Catiline I*, *Catiline III*, *Ligarius*, *Manilian Law*, *Marcellus*, *Milo*, *Murena*, *Philippic I*, *Phillipic IV*, *Roscuis Amerinus*, *Verres* (Crucifixion of a Roman Citizen and Plunder of Syracuse).

Cicero's *Letters* (selected).

Cicero's *Essays*, e.g., *De Senectute*, *De Amicitia*, *De Officiis*, Book III, *De Finibus*, Books I and II.

Nepos' *Lives*.

Ovid's *Metamorphoses*.

Pliny's *Letters* (selected).

Sallust's *Catiline and Jugurthine War*.

Terence's *Phormio* (Fairclough and Richardson's simplified edition).

Vergil's *Aeneid*, Books I-VI.

Or the reading may be selected wholly or in part from such collections as those listed under the fourth semester, to which may be added as especially appropriate for the fifth and sixth semesters:

Rogers and Harley's *Roman Home Life and Religion* (Latin readings from many Latin authors arranged by topics, together with English translations of additional selections). Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1923.

Walford's *Extracts from Cicero* (selected passages top-

ically arranged). Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1873.

Seventh and Eighth Semesters. An amount of classical Latin equivalent to not less than 100 pages of Teubner text selected in accordance with the criteria already defined from such authors and works as:

Cicero's *Orations, Letters and Essays* (see under Fifth and Sixth Semesters).

Catullus' *Poems* (selected easier poems).

Horace's *Odes* (selected easier poems).

Livy's *History* (selected easier passages).

Ovid's *Metamorphoses, Tristia, Heroides, and Fasti.*

Plautus' *Captivi.*

Pliny's *Letters* (selected easier letters).

Terence's *Andria.*

Vergil's *Aeneid I-XII, Bucolics, and Georgics.*

Or the readings may be selected wholly or in part from such collections as those listed under the fifth and sixth semesters.

2. Collateral Reading in English

We recommend that reading in English on topics bearing on the historical-cultural objectives be made a part of the work of each year of the course. We wish particularly to emphasize the desirability of directing this reading and the accompanying class-room discussion not so much toward the acquisition of bald facts as toward development of the broader implications of the several topics with especial reference to their significance in relation to the present-day environment of the pupils. It is recommended that only a very few of the topics here suggested should be taken up by any one class. The careful study of a very few topics is preferable to a superficial survey of a larger number. Following out the ramifications of almost any one of these general topics will lead to a good preliminary view of Roman civilization.

We desire to emphasize the need for the preparation and

publication of attractive special handbooks containing an elementary but adequate presentation of such topics. Of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire 93% express a desire to have such handbooks prepared, written from the pupil's point of view and containing an elementary and orderly treatment of the topics under discussion, and 71% of these teachers would like to have included in Latin books a fuller treatment of these topics than is commonly given at present. The following list of topics is made up chiefly from those regarded as important by the teachers filling out the general questionnaire. As indicated in the discussion of criteria, the development of these topics should be occasioned by contact with them in the Latin reading itself.

Daily life of the Romans.

The Roman family and the Roman attitude towards the family as an element in the state.

The education of children.

Marriage and the position of women.

The sanctity and purity of the life within the home: the principles of obedience, respect for elders, simplicity and frugality, modesty, deference to authority, pride of race; the contrast between some of these characteristics and certain modern tendencies.

The manner of living among the Romans: their houses, servants, meals, and dress.

The lack of present-day conveniences, such as facilities for lighting, determining the time of day, etc., and the effect of this lack upon the Roman mode of life as contrasted with ours.

Methods of writing letters and publishing books; private and public libraries.

Private activities outside the home: the baths, Roman holidays (e.g., Saturnalia, Lupercalia, Floralia, New Year's Day), and their modern survivals or counterparts.

Games and amusements (e.g., in the Campus Martius, the circus, the theater, the amphitheater); survivals such as the Italian *morra*, or the modern circus.

Modes of travel by land and sea: roads, famous streets and roads (e.g., Via Sacra, Via Appia), chariots, litters, ships, docks, and lighthouses.

Background for understanding such allusions as "thumbs down," "Morituri te salutamus."

The Roman's attitude toward his environment: how medicine was regarded, with what animals and plants he was familiar, what he knew of the earth and sky and natural phenomena in general.

Water supply, public baths, street lighting, police, fire protection.

Measures of time: divisions of the day and night.

Roman life as a whole, as shown in historical novels.

Characteristic Roman qualities and stories illustrative of them.

Patriotism: Curtius, Cincinnatus, Decius, Fabius.

Courage: Horatius, Cloelia, Marcus Manlius; the remark of Pyrrhus.

Fortitude: Mucius Scaevola; attitude of the Romans following the battle of Cannae and similar defeats.

Honor in keeping one's word: Regulus.

Integrity in public life: Curius, Fabricius, Cato.

Sternness of Roman discipline: L. Junius Brutus, Aulus Postumius, Manlius Torquatus, Cato the Elder.

Uprightness in private life: Lucretia.

Frugality and simplicity: Manius Curius, Cato, Scipio.

Roman pride of race: the Gauls in Rome, the battle of the Caudine Forks.

Respect for gods: Aeneas; Tarquin and the Sibylline books.

Modesty: Cornelia.

Obedience to authority: Titus Manlius.

Feeling for justice: L. Junius Brutus.

Pride in worthy achievement ("gloria"): the Fabii, Camillus, Aemilius Paulus, Marcellus, Scipio.

Religious ideas and mythology of the Romans.

The ideas of the Romans with reference to the gods and their attitude toward them; deference to higher powers.

Performance of religious obligations and observance of religious ceremonies; details of worship.

The religious festivals

Belief in omens; interpretation of dreams.

Ideas of the infernal regions; of Elysium.

Background for understanding modern allusions to Lares and Penates, oracles, augurs and augury, auspices, libations, the Vestals.

Indebtedness of Rome to Greece for myths of gods and heroes.

Myths of Greek gods and heroes (e.g., stories of Pandora, Bellerophon, Atlanta, Arachne, Echo, Persephone, Baulis and Philemon, Hercules, Jason, Perseus, Damon and Pythias, the Minotaur, Ulysses, Achilles, Circe).

Myths of Roman heroes (e.g., Aeneas, Evander, Romulus and Remus).

Background for understanding common allusions such as "an Adonis," "the Midas-touch," "halcyon days," "a sop to Cerberus," "an Elysium."

Roman history and traditions: a general idea of the development of Rome, of the main periods in the history of Rome, and of important legendary or historical personages associated with them.

Early Rome: the seven kings, Romulus, the Horatii and Curatii, Tarpeia.

The establishment of the Republic: Brutus, Horatius, Appius Claudius.

Extension of the Republic over Italy: Camillus Fabricius, Manlius, Cincinnatus, Pyrrhus.

Struggle of the plebians for equal rights: Menenius Agrippa, Coriolanus, the Fabii.

Struggle with Carthage: Duilius, Fabius, Regulus, Hannibal, Hamilcar, the Scipios; Cato the Elder.

Roman control of the Mediterranean world: Flamininus, Aemilius Paulus, suppression of piracy.

Growth of popular rights: the Gracchi.

Civil war: Marius, Sulla, Cinna.

Downfall of the Republic: Pompey, Cicero, Caesar, Crassus, Cato, Brutus, Antony.

The Empire: Augustus, Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, Nero, Trajan, Hadrian, Marcus Aurelius, Constantine.

Background for understanding common allusions, such as "Punic faith," "Delenda est Carthago," "Crossing the Rubicon," "The die is cast," "Et tu Brute," "Veni, vidi, vici," "A Fabian policy," "Pax Romana," "Vac victis," "Refusing the crown."

Topography and geography.

Location and situation of Rome: the seven hills, the Forum and some of its structures.

Some idea of the way the city looked with its walls, gates, aqueducts, theaters, amphitheaters, baths, temples, houses, shops and gardens.

The Tiber, Campus Martius, Circus Maximus, Coliseum, Pantheon, temples of Vesta, Janus, Saturn.

Geography of the Mediterranean basin and of the ancient world; development and extension of Roman power.

Significant geographical facts in connection with Caesar's conquests.

Trade routes in the Greek and Roman world; comparison with present.

Latin place names in the modern world.

The government of ancient Rome.

The three classes of society and modern parallels.

The senate; comparison with the United States Senate.

Popular assemblies.

Duties and privileges of Roman citizenship and modern analogies.

Roman officials and modern counterparts.

Comparison of Roman constitution with that of the United States.

The Roman colonial and provincial system and a comparison with those of England and of the United States.

The sources of weakness in the Roman state and comparison with present-day tendencies.

Traditions of Roman government in western Europe.

Relation of the Roman Empire to the Christian Church.

Background for understanding common allusions to such terms as "curule chair," "the fasces," "tribune," "twelve tables," "dictators," "censor," "consul."

Political, social and economic attainments of the Romans.

Political methods in Rome and a comparison with present methods.

Aims of political parties in the Roman state and comparison with present political parties.

Social reformers and radicals: the Gracchi, Drusus, Catiline, Caesar; comparison with modern representatives of progressive, radical and labor parties.

Class struggles; agrarian problems in ancient and modern times; conflict of capital with labor.

Effect of colonial expansion; of slavery.

Taxation problems, ancient and modern.

Exploitation of natural resources.

Problem of poverty and luxury, ancient and modern.

Professions and trades among the Romans: the lawyer, doctor, banker, money lender, author, baker, dyer, florist.

Significance of Rome as a whole.

The Roman genius for government, law and organization in general.

The Roman genius for practical affairs.

Rome's domination of the world.

Rome's belief in her own high mission.

The persistence of the imperial idea.

Rome the Eternal City.

Influence of Rome on Western Civilization.

Our specific debts to the Romans: our alphabet, our language, Roman types in printing, names of months, and the like.

Our general debt to the Romans: the spread of Roman civilization through western Europe, the political and cultural development of the Latin races, including those in Latin America.

B. VOCABULARY

We make the following recommendations regarding the Latin vocabulary to be thoroughly learned during the normal four-year course:

That from 400 to 500 words be selected for thorough mastery in the first year of the course and approximately 500 words in each succeeding year of the course.

C. SYNTAX

We recommend that the requirements in the syntax to be thoroughly mastered ¹⁰³ during the normal four-year course should comprise only the principles given below and should be distributed by semesters as follows:

First Semester

Agreement:

Verb with subject

Adjective with noun

Appositive with noun or pronoun

Predicate noun or adjective with subject

Case uses:

Nominative as subject

Genitive of possession and other adnominal uses, but without differentiation or separate identification

Dative of indirect object

Accusative of direct object

Accusative in prepositional phrases including those with *ad* and *in* expressing place whither, but without differentiation or separate identification

Vocative in direct address

Ablative of means

Ablative in prepositional phrases including those with *ab*, *de*, *ex*, *cum*, *in*, expressing separation, place whence, agent, manner, cause, accompaniment, place where, but without differentiation or separate identification

¹⁰³ It is assumed that the pupil before being required to master a given principle of syntax in any particular semester will have had some practical experience with the principle in connection with his reading.

Second Semester

Agreement :

Pronoun with antecedent

Case uses :

Accusative as subject of infinitive

Accusative of duration or extent

Ablative of time

Ablative of cause

Verb uses :

Present infinitive in indirect discourse

Third Semester

Case uses :

Dative with intransitive verbs as these are met

Dative with compounds as these are met

Accusative of place whither, without a preposition

Ablative absolute

Ablative of respect

Ablative with deponents as these are met

Verb uses :

Independent volitive subjunctive

Subjunctive in a clause of purpose with *ut* and *ne*

Subjunctive in a clause of result with *ut* and *ut non*

Subjunctive in a *cum*-clause of situation

Subjunctive in indirect questions

Sequence of tenses as far as needed in the reading and writing

Complementary infinitive

Perfect and future infinitives in indirect discourse

Fourth Semester

Case uses :

Genitive of description

Dative of reference

Dative of purpose as met in the reading

Dative of possessor

Ablative of separation without a preposition

Ablative of description

Verb uses :

Subjunctive in a substantive volitive clause

Subjunctive in a relative clause of purpose

Subjunctive in a clause of anticipation

Subjunctive in a *cum*-clause of cause

Subjunctive in a subordinate clause in indirect discourse

Infinitive as subject or object

Gerundive

Fifth and Sixth Semesters

Case uses :

Dative with adjectives as these are met

Dative of agent

Ablative of comparison

Ablative of degree of difference

Locative

Verb uses :

Subjunctive in a *cum*-clause of concession

Subjunctive in a relative clause of description (characteristic)

Subjunctive in a substantive clause of fact with *ut*

Passive periphrastic

Subjunctive in present and past conditions contrary to fact

Seventh and Eighth Semesters

Case uses :

Genitive with adjectives as these are met

Genitive with verbs of remembering and forgetting as these are met

Genitive with impersonal verbs as these are met

Double accusative with verbs of making, etc., as these are met

Verb uses:

Historical infinitive

Subjunctive in wishes

Subjunctive expressing possibility, obligation, etc.

Poetical constructions, such as the accusative of specification, should be noted as they occur.

D. FORMS

We recommend that the forms to be thoroughly mastered during the normal four-year course should comprise only those given below and that they should be distributed by semesters as follows:

First Semester

Nouns of the first and second declensions

Adjectives of the first and second declensions

Formation of adverbs from adjectives of the first and second declensions

Pronouns: *quis, ego, tu, is*

Verbs:

Indicative of *sum* (except the future perfect)

Indicative active and passive of the first and second conjugations (except the future perfect)

Imperative of all conjugations present active second singular and plural

Infinitive of the first and second conjugations present active and passive

Principal parts of selected verbs of the first and second conjugations

Second Semester

Nouns of the third declension

Adjectives of the third declension (i-stems and comparatives)

Formation of adverbs from adjectives of the third declension

Comparison of regular adjectives

Pronouns: *qui, hic, ille, ipse*

Verbs:

Indicative of the third and fourth conjugations active and passive (except the future perfect)

Imperative of all conjugations present passive second singular and plural

Present infinitive active and passive of the third and fourth conjugations

Perfect passive participle of all conjugations

Principal parts of selected verbs

Third Semester

Nouns of the fourth and fifth declensions

Irregularities in the declension of pronominal and numeral adjectives

Comparison of the irregular adjectives *magnus, parvus, multus, bonus, malus*

Verbs:

Subjunctive of *sum* (except the perfect)

Subjunctive active and passive of all conjugations (except the perfect)

Perfect infinitive active and passive and future active infinitive of all conjugations

Present active and future active participles of all conjugations

Gerund

Principal parts of selected verbs

Fourth Semester

Pronouns: *aliquis* and *quisque*

Verbs:

Irregularities in the conjugation of *possum, eo, fero, volo, nolo* and *malo*

Deponent verbs of all conjugations

Future passive participle (gerundive) of all conjugations

Principal parts of selected verbs

Fifth Semester

Nouns :

Locative

Verbs :

Future perfect indicative active and passive of all conjugations

Perfect subjunctive active and passive of all conjugations

Supine

Principal parts of selected verbs

Section 7. College Entrance Requirements

It has already been shown that less than five per cent of pupils who annually begin the study of Latin in our secondary schools may be expected at present to complete the secondary course in Latin and continue the subject in college. Theoretically, therefore, the question of college entrance requirements directly concerns only a small minority of pupils now studying Latin in the schools. But, as has been shown, college entrance requirements do in fact exert a powerful indirect influence upon the course pursued by the great majority of secondary school pupils who will not go to college or, going to college, will not continue the study of Latin in college.

In view of the practical relationship existing between college entrance requirements and the content and methods of the course in secondary Latin we are convinced that if the recommendations contained in this report are to become generally effective and if proper freedom is to be given to teachers of Latin to develop the Latin course in accordance with

what they believe to be the needs of their pupils, certain modifications will need to be made in present college entrance requirements.

While we have sought primarily to make such recommendations as would in our opinion best serve the needs of all the pupils who are studying Latin in the secondary schools of the country, we believe that the course recommended in this report will also provide for those who will continue the study of Latin in college a much better preparation for advanced work than the present standard course provides. In particular, we believe that the interest of the small minority as well as of the great majority will be served best by the provision for a greater emphasis upon the development of power to read Latin as Latin, for a more thorough mastery of a smaller number of technical facts, and for a longer approach to the reading of the first classical author.¹⁰⁴ Furthermore, the results secured in the four-year English schools show that a grade of scholarship much higher than is commonly attained in the schools of our country can be secured on the basis of a considerably smaller amount of intensive reading of the classical authors.¹⁰⁵

The primary concern of the colleges, and their undoubted

¹⁰⁴ "In my opinion, there is imperative need of reform in the work of the first two years of the course. It is now so hurried that it loses much of its immediate value and affords a poor preparation for further study. The teacher should have time to drill his class of beginners on new forms and constructions until they have been thoroughly learned, adding to the exercises of the book as much as may be necessary; and there should be considerable reading of simple graded Latin—so simple that it can be read with a sense of mastery and so carefully graded as to give an opportunity for full consideration of each new difficulty. This means, of course, simplified or 'made' Latin, and doubtless entails, in the case of most high schools, a reduction in the reading of the canonical works." J. C. Kirtland, "High-School Latin and College Entrance Requirements: A Reply," *The Classical Journal*, X (February, 1915), p. 232.

¹⁰⁵ See I. Kandel, *The Classics in England, France and Germany*, Part III.

right also, is to determine whether those secondary school pupils who wish to continue the study of Latin in college are prepared to do so.¹⁰⁶ The responsibility of determining the means by which the pupils can best be given this preparation should be placed on the schools.¹⁰⁷ We believe that the results obtained in this way will be much more satisfactory to the colleges.

It was shown in Section 3 of this chapter that 84% of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire expressed the opinion that the present standard course should be modified. Of those expressing this opinion 97% indicated their belief that the course so modified would provide an adequate preparation for continued reading of Latin in college.

The modifications in college entrance requirements suggested later in this section are in accordance not only with the recommendations contained in this report and with the views of teachers, but with general tendencies already clearly apparent in the administration of college entrance requirements by the colleges themselves. The Adams study¹⁰⁸ shows that of 190 colleges giving specific information with reference to their actual practice in the administration of entrance requirements no college requires for entrance the first four books

¹⁰⁶ "After all, the vital question and the only question that a college has a right to ask a candidate for admission is, 'Do you know enough Latin to enter the Freshman class?' May the time soon come when, standing on that broad ground, the college will ask only that question and say to every worthy candidate no matter how or where prepared: 'Tros Tyriusque mihi nullo discrimine agetur.'" B. L. D'Ooge, "High School Latin and College Entrance Requirements," *The Classical Journal*, X (October, 1914), p. 40.

¹⁰⁷ "The Commission feels, however, that it is wise to open the way for a wider range of reading, and that the schools should have the right to select the material to be read, the colleges contenting themselves with evidence that the reading has been so done as to furnish the right sort of training and the necessary preparation for their work." From the Report of the Commission on College Entrance Requirements, in Proceedings of the American Philological Association, XLI (1910), cxxxix.

¹⁰⁸ See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 15.

of Caesar, the specific six orations of Cicero and the first six books of Vergil without allowing variation in kind or amount; that slightly more than 52% require the reading of classical Latin equivalent in amount to that contained in the standard course but allow substitutions such as those recommended by the College Entrance Examination Board; that 11% accept less in amount than that contained in the standard course; that 19% allow substitutions of non-classical Latin for a part of the classical Latin included in the standard course; and that 17% do not prescribe the amount or kind of reading material but leave this question entirely to the secondary schools whose certificates they accept. In other words, slightly more than 47% of these 190 colleges at the present time admit deviations in kind, in amount or in both from the present standard course as defined by the College Entrance Examination Board.¹⁰⁹

In view of the foregoing considerations we suggest that the following general modifications should be made in college entrance requirements in Latin:

1. That in the reading requirement emphasis be placed upon quality rather than quantity, and that capacity to comprehend and to translate at sight should be the most important factor in determining a student's qualification for continuing the study of Latin in college.
2. That the amount¹¹⁰ of intensive reading to be required of candidates for four units of entrance credit and for

¹⁰⁹ Forty colleges of the country have accepted as fulfilling requirements for two units of entrance credit a second-year book containing classical Latin equivalent in amount to two books of Caesar.

¹¹⁰ "In theory, there should be no quantitative requirement, no limitation of the choice of reading, no prescription of particular works; the teachers would get better results if they were free to suit the material to their students and to keep their eyes fixed on the mastering of the subject rather than the amount of reading. I have myself long been wedded to this theory, but I am not blind to the facts. No one who has had experience in weighing school certificates or in setting college-entrance ex-

admission to examination for college entrance be substantially reduced.

3. That the range of reading within which the amount prescribed may be selected should be largely increased.
4. That in view of the practical problems involved in setting entrance examinations a certain amount of definitely prescribed reading should be required, but that the amount prescribed should be less than at present.¹¹¹
5. That college entrance requirements and college entrance examinations should attach more weight than is given at present to a knowledge of the content of the Latin read and to the historical-cultural objectives of the study of Latin.
6. That college entrance requirements and college entrance examinations should be of such a character as to encourage the persistent use throughout the secondary-school period of sound methods of study.
7. That, in view of our recommendation that the writing of Latin may well be omitted from the work of the fourth year of the secondary-school course in order to allow full time for the reading, candidates for college entrance who offer four years of Latin should not be required to be examined in Latin prose composition.

aminations can fail to see that some standard is necessary." J. C. Kirtland, "High-School Latin and the College Entrance Requirements: A Reply," *The Classical Journal*, X (February, 1915), p. 231.

¹¹¹ "An examination in sight-translation presents the best criterion of the quality of the student's work, his power and progress. The examination must, however, be carefully adapted to a norm of preparation, and the establishment of the norm involves some agreement as to both the amount and the range of the reading. Furthermore, the prescription of a part of the reading not only can be defended on the ground that it enforces intensive study, but is in the interest of the examinee, in so far as it furnishes the basis of the tests in grammar and composition and a check upon the result of any ill-considered test in sight-translation." J. C. Kirtland, "High-School Latin and the College Entrance Requirements: A Reply," *The Classical Journal*, X (February, 1915), p. 231.

We suggest the adoption by the College Entrance Examination Board of the following specific requirements for four units of entrance credit in Latin:

I. *Amount and Range of the Reading Required*

1. The Latin reading shall be not less *in amount* than 80 pages of easy "made" or adapted Latin and 195 Teubner pages of classical Latin.

2. Of the 195 pages specified above approximately 50 pages shall be prescribed and the remaining pages shall be selected from classical authors at the discretion of the schools.

II. *Scope of the Examinations*

1. *Comprehension at Sight.* Candidates will be examined as to their ability to answer questions upon the thought of a moderately easy sight passage the translation of which will not be required.

2. *Translation at Sight.* Candidates will be examined in translation at sight of both prose and verse. The vocabulary, constructions, and range of ideas in the passages set will be suited to the preparation secured by the intensive reading of the selections prescribed in 3 below.

NOTE: The most important factor in determining the fitness of the candidate to continue the study of Latin in college shall be his ability to comprehend and to translate Latin at sight.

3. *Prescribed Reading.* Candidates will be examined also upon the following prescribed intensive reading:

In 1926, 1927 and 1928 selections to be specified by the College Entrance Examination Board amounting to approximately:

15 Teubner pages from Caesar's *Gallic War*

15 Teubner pages from Cicero's *Orations*

20 Teubner pages from Vergil's *Aeneid*.

4. *Content.* The examination will include specific questions

on the subject matter of the prescribed reading and general questions upon important aspects of Roman life and civilization.

In 1926, 1927 and 1928 candidates will be examined upon their knowledge of the following topics: (topics to be specified by the College Entrance Board.)

CHAPTER V

METHODS OF TEACHING SECONDARY LATIN

Section 1. Introduction

THE preceding chapter dealt with the problem of determining what content provides the most effectual means for developing power to read and understand Latin and for concurrent attainment of the ultimate objectives determined upon as valid. The present chapter is concerned with the closely related problem of the methods to be employed.

While in this chapter we emphasize the ultimate objectives, it is proper in this connection to repeat once more our conviction that the progressive development of power to read Latin is indispensable to the attainment of the ultimate objectives. The object of the teacher is to teach Latin in order that the pupil may learn Latin and may also realize the important enduring values derivable from the study of Latin. Without training in Latin as Latin pupils will do poorly in their attempts to make the applications of Latin. The proper teaching of Latin as Latin by a teacher who is also awake to the importance of the ultimate objectives and alert in using all opportunities to emphasize them will be sure to produce the best results.

Moreover, while we are strongly convinced that the method of teaching Latin recommended in this chapter is the method which must be followed if the best results are to be generally secured, we recognize that successful results have been and can be attained by other methods. We also realize that successful results depend more on the *thoroughness* with which Latin is taught than on any one other factor. Knowledge of Latin

by the teacher is the first and foremost requisite for the teaching of Latin. No methods, however modern or however perfect, can dispense with that. It is also very important that the teacher should constantly enlarge and enliven his knowledge by reading and study in addition to preparation for the daily lessons he is to teach.

Section 2. Procedure

The problem of methods resolves itself into two complementary questions:

1. What methods appear to be the most effectual for attainment of the objectives?
2. What changes should be made in present methods in order to insure the fullest attainment of these objectives?

In general the sources of information which were employed in the discussions of objectives and content in the two preceding chapters provide the basis for the conclusions reached in the present chapter. The chief additional sources of information are the following:

1. Part III of the general questionnaire.¹
2. Parts III and IV of the pupils' Question Blank on Content and Method.²
3. The information blanks filled out by the schools participating in the national testing programme.³
4. The questionnaire sent to college graduates.⁴
5. The Dunbar study⁵ based on a study of "group interviews" with teachers of Latin on methods of teaching various phases of Latin.

¹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

² See Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

³ See Part II, Chapter I, Section 19.

⁴ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 8.

⁵ See M. M. Dunbar, "An Analysis of Group Interviews Showing Methods Used in Latin Classes to Teach Certain Transferable Qualities," a master's dissertation at the University of Pittsburgh, 1923.

6. The Pound and Helle study⁶ based on an analysis of local examination question papers.

*Section 3. Examination of Present Methods in Relation to
the Attainment of the Objectives Determined
Upon as Valid*

The discussion contained in Section 3 of the preceding chapter involved an analysis of the present content of the course in relation to the attainment of the objectives determined upon as valid and a criticism of present methods of teaching, inasmuch as these depend to a great extent upon the content of the course. The results there examined are results obtained under present conditions of content and method, and in making the recommendations there proposed in regard to content we were largely actuated by the necessity of providing a content which would both permit and encourage the use of methods which we believe will be most effective for attaining the immediate and ultimate objectives in the teaching of secondary Latin.

The question of methods was also anticipated at many points in the earlier chapter on objectives. Attention was there called to the significant fact that the methods recommended by the teachers answering the general questionnaire as most valuable for the study of vocabulary, syntax, forms and the comprehension and translation of the Latin sentence for the sake of progress in Latin itself are precisely those which were recommended by teachers and psychologists alike as most likely to lead to the acquisition of correct mental habits and to the ability to apply in other fields the facts acquired and processes developed in the study of Latin. Furthermore the analysis of the various ultimate objectives con-

⁶ See L. G. Pound and R. H. Helle, "An Investigation of Objectives in Teaching Secondary Latin," a joint master's dissertation at the Ohio State University, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 13.

tained in the same chapter showed that the pupil's realization of the values to be found in the study of Latin depends to a very large degree upon the employment of appropriate methods in the study of the subject.

There are, however, several additional studies relating specifically to methods which throw further light upon the need for certain changes in class-room procedure and in the methods which pupils employ in the independent preparation of their assigned lessons.

The Grise study⁷ shows that the great majority of fourth-year Latin students follow the English order in their attack upon a Latin sentence, although the majority of teachers filling out the general questionnaire express the belief that the Latin sentence should be attacked in the Latin order. Again in their effort to solve the meaning of an unfamiliar word the method most commonly reported by these pupils is to "look it up at once in the vocabulary," while only 37% indicate that they try to work out the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context or by associating them with related Latin words or English derivatives. The two last named methods are those most highly approved by teachers filling out the general questionnaire.

One explanation of the difference between the teachers' theory and the pupils' practice is to be found in the analysis of class-room activities reported in this same study.

There can be no doubt that the pupil's consciousness of the type of class-room question he has learned to expect is a potent influence in his choice of method in the independent study of his lesson. The great majority of the 3600 pupils answering the question blank reported that in class recitations they

⁷ See F. C. Grise, "Content and Method in High School Latin," a doctor's dissertation at George Peabody College for Teachers, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

were most commonly asked to "translate the sentence" or, less frequently, to "translate the entire passage." Specific questions on the thought of the passage such as "Who sent envoys to Caesar?" "For what purpose?" "What was the result?" are reported as common by about half of the pupils. Less than a third of the pupils reported that they were commonly asked to "tell the story up to the point where the new lesson begins," to "tell what connection this passage has with what has gone before," or to "tell briefly the story contained in the advance lesson." It is evident that a large number of teachers depend upon translation as the chief method of testing the pupil's comprehension of a reading assignment.

Eighty-five per cent of the pupils report that they were commonly asked questions on syntax such as "What is the reason for the case of *rebus*?" or "What is the reason for the mood of *mitterentur*?" Over 97% of them report that such questions were usually asked in connection with the translation of the passage being studied. Over 64% report that such questions were usually asked *after* the translation of the passage, while only 4% report that such questions were usually asked in advance of the translation. It is clear, therefore, that most of these questions on syntax had for their chief purpose something other than clearing up difficulties in advance or correcting errors or otherwise helping the pupil to comprehend the meaning of the passage.

Less than half of the pupils report that they have commonly been asked to read the sentence or passage aloud in Latin. That the reading of the Latin aloud in class was in the majority of these cases not used as a means to an understanding of the passage and was therefore from the pupil's point of view perfunctory seems to be indicated by the fact that only 7% of the pupils reported that in their independent study of a reading assignment they read the Latin aloud, and that a majority of pupils answering the question checked "reading the sentence aloud in Latin" among the things they

liked least to do. Over 75% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire indicated their belief that oral reading of the Latin should precede translation. It is clear that the relation of this practice to the interpretation of the thought of the passage must be made much clearer to pupils if it is to awaken their interest and affect their methods of study. That the perception of a real and close relationship between the oral use of Latin and the comprehension and expression of thought does arouse the pupil's interest is shown by the fact that while only 342 of the pupils filling out the question blank stated that they were commonly asked to answer in Latin questions in Latin on the content of the passage being studied, 460 said that they liked or would have liked most to do this.

Less than half of the pupils report that they received frequent help on the advance assignment in the form of practice in sight reading. Yet the teachers answering the general questionnaire were practically unanimous in the opinion that sight translation should be a regular part of the work.

Questions directed to increasing the pupil's ability to apply his knowledge of Latin to an understanding of English derivatives were reported as common by 54% of the pupils. The use of English derivatives as an aid in the study of Latin seems much less common. Only 26% of the pupils reported that they were commonly asked such questions as "How does the English word 'opinion' help you to tell the declension of *opinio*?" or "How does the English word 'mission' help you to tell the fourth principal part of *mitto*?" and only 29% reported that they were commonly asked such questions as "How did you get the meaning of *reverti* (assuming this to be a new word)?"

The Swan study,⁸ based upon the replies made by 505 stu-

⁸ See R. Swan, "Content and Method in High School Latin," a master's dissertation at Indiana University, 1923. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

dents who were continuing the study of Latin in college after having completed four years of Latin in the secondary schools, confirms the evidence secured from the Grise study.

It is probably not too much to say that the practice of depending solely or largely on the translation of a passage to test the pupil's preparation of the passage without giving him adequate assistance or training in preparation of the advance assignment is in large measure responsible for the frequent use of illegitimate helps in the study of Latin. The Grise study referred to above shows that the pupils in almost half of the schools included in the study reported that "a few," "many" or "all" of their classmates used translations or "ponies" in the preparation of their lessons in Caesar and Cicero and that in about one-third of the schools a "few" pupils used these "helps" in the preparation of their lessons in Vergil.⁹

The Dunbar study,¹⁰ based upon "group interviews" secured from teachers enrolled in teachers' courses in Latin in the summer sessions of several institutions and upon similar material obtained at meetings of classical teachers, sheds much light upon the methods which teachers commonly follow or recommend should be followed in securing the attainment of certain disciplinary objectives. Several desirable qualities, such as orderly procedure, accuracy and thoroughness, were selected as subjects for these "group interviews" and teachers were asked to indicate: (1) what methods they used or be-

⁹ The decrease in the use of translations in the fourth year when Vergil is read is explained by the author as probably due to the elimination of those pupils who were unable or unwilling to prepare their lessons without such illegitimate help or to their greater interest in Vergil. In supporting his second hypothesis the author recalls the fact that first place in order of preference was given to Vergil by nearly two and one-half times as many pupils as to all the other Latin authors combined.

¹⁰ See M. M. Dunbar, "An Analysis of Group Interviews Showing Methods Used in Latin Classes to Teach Certain Transferable Qualities," a master's dissertation at the University of Pittsburgh, 1923.

lieved should be used to develop these qualities in connection with the study of Latin itself; and (2) what methods they used or believed should be used to train pupils to carry over these habits to the study of other subjects and to situations outside the class-room.

The suggestions made with reference to the development of the habit of orderly procedure, for example, emphasize the desirability of training pupils to follow some regular method in attacking the various problems which arise in their study of Latin. Among the suggestions most frequently made are the following:

Orderly procedure on the part of the teacher.

Careful assignments embodying the principle of orderly procedure.

Supervised study with emphasis upon orderly procedure in attacking the problems involved.

Insistence upon grasping the thought of a Latin sentence in the Latin order.

Insistence upon the use of idiomatic English in translation.

Systematic organization of inflections.

For the development of increased ability to reason correctly in connection with the study of Latin the following suggestions are made by teachers:

Insistence that the thought of a Latin sentence be grasped in the Latin order.

Insistence that the thought of a Latin paragraph be grasped before translation is attempted.

Insistence that a translation should make sense.

Development of Latin syntactical principles with the help of English.

Emphasis upon functional questions in syntax.

Giving the pupils no more help than is really needed in working out the thought of a Latin sentence.

Emphasis upon the thought connection of a given passage with what has preceded and with what will probably follow.

In their answers to the question as to the methods which they believe should be employed to encourage the spread of these and other desirable habits teachers indicate that they believe in such transfer, but "many have very vague ideas as to how this transfer is to be accomplished," and many seem to assume that the transfer is entirely automatic. Among the specific methods suggested by teachers for developing generalized habits are the following:

Explanation of the value of such habits in every-day life.

Illustrations of the use of such habits in every-day life.

Creating in the pupils a desire for the possession of such habits.

Identifying the procedure taught in Latin with that followed in other subjects.

The general conclusions of the author are as follows: "With psychological opinion almost unanimous that transfer is possible, no teacher of Latin need hesitate to strive consciously to make Latin a means for teaching accuracy, sustained attention, orderly procedure, thoroughness, and reasoning—qualities that are valuable in any scheme of life. But since the conditions under which transfer takes place cannot at the present time be accurately stated, an increased responsibility is put on Latin teachers to coöperate with every effort to ascertain these conditions by experimentation and otherwise to attempt to discover those devices and methods which will be effectual."

AN ANALYSIS OF EXAMINATION QUESTIONS

It may be assumed that the explicit aims of any subject will be expressed in the tests and examinations given to measure the extent to which pupils have attained those aims. In order to secure additional light upon the relative importance which teachers in actual practice attach to the various aims considered valid a large number of local examination question

papers was collected from all parts of the country and analyzed. The Pound-Helle study¹¹ based upon an analysis of 273 sets of such questions shows the extent to which the various objectives of Latin are represented in these examinations and compares the results with the relative importance attached theoretically to the same objectives by the teachers who filled out the score-card.¹² The results show a marked discrepancy between theory and practice, though it may fairly be questioned whether it is a valid assumption that written examinations should involve all the objectives aimed at in a course. Thus 86% of first-year papers, 94% of second-year papers, 97% of third-year papers and 88% of fourth-year papers contained prepared passages for translation, while 11%, 42%, 48% and 53% of the papers of the first, second, third and fourth years respectively contained passages to be translated at sight. 89% of first-year papers, 98% of second-year papers, 90% of third-year papers and 69% of fourth-year papers contained questions on formal syntax; 100% of first-year papers, 74% of second-year papers, 54% of third-year papers and 26% of fourth-year papers contained formal questions on inflections. The type of questions asked indicates that pupils are justified in assuming that what is expected of them in the reading of a Latin passage is ability to translate the passage into English and to answer questions on syntax and inflectional forms illustrated in the passage. No paper of any year contained a question which would test the pupil's capacity to determine the meaning of an unfamiliar word, to solve an unfamiliar syntactical construction, or to read Latin as Latin.

¹¹See L. G. Pound and R. H. Helle, "An Investigation of Objectives in Teaching Secondary Latin," a joint master's dissertation at the Ohio State University, 1923. See also Part II, Chapter IV, Section 13.

¹²See A. D. Hare, "An Evaluation of Objectives in the Teaching of Latin," *The Classical Journal*, XIX (December, 1923), pp. 155-165. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 3.

Questions on the thought-content of prepared passages were found in none of the first-year papers, in 14% of second-year papers, in 34% of third-year papers and in 59% of fourth-year papers; while similar questions on sight passages were found in none of the papers of the first and third years, in 1% of second-year papers and in 2% of fourth-year papers.

The following tabulation gives for each of the four years the percentage of papers containing questions relating to various ultimate objectives:

	1st <i>Year</i>	2nd <i>Year</i>	3rd <i>Year</i>	4th <i>Year</i>
History and institutions of the Romans	3%	52%	82%	96%
Literary qualities of Latin authors	0%	0%	30%	94%
English derivatives	42%	27%	23%	29%
Characteristics of authors read	1%	20%	34%	25%
Effective English through adequate translation	1%	17%	7%	2%
Latin phrases, quotations, etc.	6%	3%	0%	0%
Elements of literary style in English	0%	0%	0%	4%
Technical terms in English	0%	1%	0%	0%

The following aims which the teachers filling out the general questionnaire consider valid for the course as a whole were not represented in any paper in any year:

English grammar

English spelling

General principles of language structure

Ability to master foreign languages.

The authors' conclusions are as follows: "In general this study has brought out: (1) that relatively few teachers asked questions which pertain to the majority of these nineteen objectives; (2) that there was little or no consensus of opinion, indicated by the votes cast, regarding these objectives; (3) that there was very little relation between what objectives the teacher considered should be employed, as indicated by the score-cards, and what were actually used in the examination papers."

It is certain that the pupil's estimate of the relative value of the various objectives in the study of Latin and the consequent attention which he will devote to them in the independent preparation of his lessons will depend in large measure upon the extent to which questions designed to test his attainment of these objectives are included in periodic tests and final examinations.

CHANGES IN METHOD SUGGESTED BY COLLEGE GRADUATES

A special questionnaire was sent to those college graduates who in answering the O'Shea questionnaire reported that they had studied Latin one or more years in secondary school or college. Those receiving this second questionnaire were asked to suggest any changes in the teaching of school Latin which they believed would make the course more valuable. The chief changes recommended were:

More emphasis upon the historical-cultural values, including more attention to the literary qualities of authors read.

More emphasis upon the element of human interest in the teaching of Latin so as to include more information about the daily life of the Romans.

More emphasis upon the value of a knowledge of the political and social problems of the Romans as an aid to the solution of present-day problems of similar character.

More emphasis upon the relation of Latin to English, especially in the contribution which the study of Latin may make to a knowledge of English derivatives and of the principles of English grammar.

More emphasis upon ability to read Latin as Latin and less emphasis upon mere translation.

More use of oral Latin.

Less emphasis upon the formal side, especially upon formal grammar and syntax.

Less emphasis upon "covering the ground" and less haste, especially in the elementary stages.

More emphasis upon the content of the Latin read and more extensive reading of the classical authors in translation.

More emphasis upon the value of the study of Latin for the insight it gives into the development of language in general.

More emphasis upon developing in the pupil a consciousness of the potential values to be secured from the study of Latin.

Section 4. General Principles Determining the Selection of Methods of Teaching Secondary Latin

On the basis of the examination of the present content and methods contained in the preceding section and in Section 3 of the preceding chapter we recommend acceptance of the following general principles for determining methods to be employed in the teaching of Latin.

1. The methods of teaching should be such as will develop in the pupil correct habits of study. The methods adopted by the teacher can be effective in developing the pupil's power to understand and read Latin or in developing valuable general habits just in so far as they create corresponding methods of study on the part of the pupil. Upon the development of sound habits of study, permanent and general in their effect, the utmost emphasis should be placed. Not simply what the pupil does under the immediate direction or personal supervision of the teacher, but what he does by himself in his own study of assigned lessons is the final test which any sound method of teaching must successfully meet.

2. The methods of teaching should be such as will contribute directly or indirectly to the progressive development of power to read and understand Latin as Latin and at the same time cultivate in the pupil desirable general mental habits, increase his fund of information, stimulate his appreciation of good literature, inculcate right social attitudes and train and encourage him to apply independently facts and processes

acquired in the study of Latin in other fields of intellectual activity. The development of these immediate and ultimate objectives should be continuous, concurrent and interdependent.

3. The methods of teaching should be such as to utilize constantly and to the fullest extent the previous experience of the pupil.¹³ In the teaching of Latin, especially in the elementary stages, this involves a knowledge on the part of the teacher of the previous linguistic experience of his pupils in English and a careful selection of those elements which will furnish the best basis for learning the vocabulary, syntax, forms, word-order, and general sentence structure of the new language to be learned.

4. The methods of teaching should be such as to enlist the interest of the pupil to the fullest extent consistent with the educational ends in view. Other things being equal the pupil will acquire more readily, retain longer, and apply more widely those facts and processes in which his interest is most

¹³ "It is recognized that Latin cannot stand as a subject by itself; that which is isolated has no mental adhesion. Every new addition to knowledge must be linked on to the ideas already subsisting in the mind. The pupil who is to be introduced to a new subject always brings with him a certain stock of knowledge which bears some relation or other, however vague, to the new subject. The teacher's first duty, therefore, is to bring into the mental focus by skilful questioning those ideas which are serviceable for the new acquirement, and take care that with each fresh acquisition the closest connection is established both between the new ideas in themselves and between them and the knowledge previously existing. . . . With us too frequently the coördination of knowledge is left to manage itself in the child's mind. No one can study German schools or their treatises on methods of instruction and the planning of curricula without being impressed with the skill and care with which one subject is linked up with another, and preparation is made beforehand for each new stage of progress." From "The Teaching of Classics in Secondary Schools in Germany," A Special Report on Educational Subjects printed for the Board of Education by Wyman and Sons, London (1910), Vol. 20, pp. 126, 128.

keenly aroused.¹⁴ Pupils may be depended on to show a relatively greater interest in class-room questions which are functional rather than formal in character. The Grise study¹⁵ shows a distinct preference on the part of pupils for the following types of question in the class recitation on an assigned passage:

Tell the story up to the point where the new lesson begins.
Tell what connection this passage has with what has gone before.

Tell briefly the story contained in the advance lesson.

Questions on inflections, such as "How does the English word 'mission' help you to tell the fourth principal part of *mitto*?"

Questions on English derivatives, such as "What is the meaning of 'approximate' (derived from *proxima*)?"

In the case of every type of question listed above a larger number of the pupils stated that they liked or thought they would like to do the sort of thing involved in the question than reported that they had commonly been asked to do it.

THE TRANSFER OF TRAINING

It is reasonable to believe that almost any secondary school pupil of fair ability and diligence will benefit to some degree by the many casual contacts which occur when he

¹⁴ "If we are going to achieve the second of our aims—the ability to read—we must have first-year books that contain texts which, while illustrating skilfully points of grammar, constitute a connected story, a story with a meaning. This is an absolute necessity: first, to train the student to consider Latin as a vehicle for thought; second, to enable him to read connected text; third, to give the teacher an opportunity for the oral drill that is so necessary to a mastery of forms and vocabulary; fourth, to stimulate the interest of the student in Latin. The most important lesson that modern pedagogy has revealed to us is the necessity of interesting, if we wish to succeed in our teaching." E. B. de Sauzé in "Problems of First-year Latin," *The Classical Journal*, XVI (March, 1921), p. 344.

¹⁵ See F. C. Grise, "Content and Method in High School Latin," a doctor's dissertation at George Peabody College for Teachers, 1924. See also Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

pursues the study of two closely related subjects. On the other hand the extent of this benefit by transfer, whether between more closely or less closely related subjects, is increased or lessened according to his degree of appreciation of the meanings of these contacts, and this in turn is affected by the kind of teaching he receives. Therefore in so far as attainment of the ultimate objectives involves transfer of training, the methods of teaching should be such as to create conditions most favorable for such transfer. It is clear that at the present time experimental data do not warrant final conclusions concerning the extent and definite method of transfer of training from Latin to other fields, although the possibility of such transfer and of its increase by use of suitable methods is recognized by practically all psychologists. Accordingly, our particular conclusions relating to transfer will necessarily be subject to such modification as fuller experience may ultimately suggest. The practical recommendations in this report connected with the question of transfer are based upon the indications of the tests and upon the views of psychologists as expressed in the Symposium on the Disciplinary Objectives of Latin.¹⁶ Our position may be stated as follows:

1. Automatic transfer is a function of the intelligence of the pupil and comparatively few young pupils possess capacity for independent generalization in a sufficient degree to justify the adoption of methods of teaching Latin which assume the occurrence of automatic transfer to a large extent. "The less we assume automaticity of spread and the more we work for it, the more certain we will be that our procedure is correct."¹⁷ "All experiments in transfer tend to show that trans-

¹⁶ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 4.

¹⁷ This quotation and those which follow in this discussion are taken from the Symposium of Psychologists on Disciplinary Objectives of Latin. See Part II, Chapter III, Section 4.

fer is automatic only when applications are so nearly identical that they are a matter of course."

2. For the great majority of pupils studying Latin the development of the habit of generalization and consequent transfer calls for continued practice in it by teacher and pupil. This involves:

- a. The development of the desired attitude or trait in a variety of situations connected with the teaching of Latin itself. "The standards set for the preparation of the regular Latin work should involve and exemplify the more general abilities." "One thing is certain that the traits desired cannot be generalized unless they are actually developed by the specific course in question." "Call the attention of the student to the trait, habit or attitude that actually produces good results in Latin."
- b. The conscious generalization of these attitudes or traits into desirable general habits or aims, putting the thing to be transferred into its most generally usable form. "This implies that almost everything that has a specific aim should, if possible, be generalized." "Transfer can be increased by increasing the consciousness or explicitness of the common elements." "The more a trait is brought into consciousness, the more likely will be the transfer of that trait." "The teacher must have a definite purpose to effect the transfer and it will occur more successfully if the students are also aware of the end sought." "I think it very desirable that elements to be transferred be brought to the focus of attention, generalized and the application illustrated." "If we were to point out the importance of accuracy, high degree of concentration, and clearness of thinking as applied to other fields of study, I believe we should succeed in very greatly increasing the amount of transfer." "It is possible to do teaching in

such a way that the student's horizon is distinctly limited by the mode of teaching. If the associations are limited and rigid, then not only is there no transfer but the student's experience is narrowed by the type of teaching in that he will never be willing later to take a new point of view. To my thinking a great deal of the Latin that has been taught in this country not only is certain not to transfer in an affirmative way, but narrows the student's horizon."

- c. Explicit training of the pupil in applying these habits, traits and aims to situations not connected with Latin and in discovering independently new applications. "The more clearly the transfer possibilities are seen by the student, the greater will be the spread." "It is most important to have the individuals concerned consciously attempt to utilize the power and habits formed in a study of Latin in other fields." "The amount of spread will be determined by the amount of such work actually going on in the pupil rather than by the amount done by the teacher." "It requires a teacher who has interests outside the subject and who is acquainted with the methods of successful teaching in fields other than Latin." "Suggesting to the pupil other fields in which the same traits, habits and attitudes would be helpful to him should result in a very much greater transfer than at present." "Any method is favorable that would tend to encourage the use of these traits in other than Latin situations."
- d. The development in the pupil of strong enough motives to insure a controlling desire for the transfer in general and for each type and field in particular. "Much will depend upon the student's attitude. Those who persistently revolt against it of course will receive less than those who feel its value." "The worth of a trait must be clearly *appreciated*." "The 'spread' of these habits may be lim-

ited, however, by mutual inhibitions or by a bad general 'set,' such as might be represented by disgust or distaste for the subject from over-usage or from monotonous grind." "I think genuine appreciation of meaning and significance is the basic factor here." "I am inclined to think that the amount of spread depends pretty much on the interests or tastes that are aroused. Given an interest or attitude, the individual tends to take advantage of opportunities for further application."

3. When a particular habit, trait or aim has been generalized and has been repeatedly applied to other fields it may be expected to become automatic. To use a homely figure, we believe that the ordinary pump has to be primed to insure a flow of water, but do not believe that the extent of flow will be limited to the amount used in priming. "The spread appears at first to be largely conscious, but, as with other mental processes, tends to become automatic." "My impression is that much of the permanent residue of such training is subsequently 'automatic' in its function."

The views regarding transfer here set forth are in agreement with those contained in the report of the Committee on Classical Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The following paragraphs are taken from that report:¹⁸

"Hence the Committee suggests that teachers of Latin and those responsible for the administration of the schools be on their guard against (1) expecting too much transfer, (2) expecting too little transfer, (3) expecting transfer to be automatic. Pending the establishment of more conclusive theories of the transfer of improved efficiency, the Committee recommends a careful analy-

¹⁸ Quoted by A. J. Inglis in *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 462.

sis of the mental traits employed in the study of Latin, to determine what mental traits it is desirable to transfer from that field to other fields, what traits are actually transferred, and what other traits may be so transferred.

"The Committee expresses its belief that among the mental traits involved in the study of Latin wherein transfer is most to be expected will be found the following: habits of mental work, tendency to neglect distracting and irrelevant elements, ideals of thoroughness, ideals of accuracy and precision, and proper attitudes towards study as an intellectual achievement.

"The Committee further holds that in proportion as such potential values are consciously the aim of the work in Latin and are consciously developed, in like proportion conditions are favorable to their realization as actual results of the work in Latin."

Section 5. Specific Recommendations in Regard to Methods

A. READING

1. The Comprehension of Latin

The methods to be employed in teaching pupils to read and understand Latin should satisfy the criteria outlined in the preceding section, that is, they should be such as to develop in the pupil correct habits of independent study, to contribute both to the progressive development of power to read Latin as Latin and to the concurrent attainment of the ultimate objectives which teachers consider valid for their pupils, to enlist the interest of the pupils, and to encourage the use of the facts and processes acquired in the study of Latin in activities outside the Latin class.

READING IN THE LATIN WORD ORDER

The majority of teachers filling out the general questionnaire express the belief that the Latin sentence should be attacked in the Latin order. Nevertheless a majority of these teachers follow in practice the analytic method. The reason seems to be largely the fact that the opportunity for the use of apperception¹⁰ in teaching pupils to read and comprehend Latin as Latin is much less than in the teaching of the elements of Latin. The pupil's previous experience in the comprehension of normal English sentences does not furnish a basis for developing the ability to comprehend Latin in the Latin order; for it is in word order and sentence structure that the genius of Latin differs most radically from that of English. In fact, much of the difficulty which pupils commonly have in developing power to read and comprehend Latin is due to an unconscious attempt to recast the Latin sentence into the order familiar to them in English. Only such sentences in English as depend for their interpretation upon the grammatical form of certain words rather than upon word order will furnish English analogies for illustrating the genius of the Latin language in this respect, such as "Whom therefore ye ignorantly worship him declare I unto you"; or "Him thus answered then his bold compeer."

We believe that ability to read Latin as Latin, that is, to get hold of the sense in the Latin order without translation, can be developed only by means of persistent training on the basis of some definitely conceived method to be followed consistently throughout the secondary course. We recommend, therefore, that there should be daily practice in comprehension at sight in accordance with the method adopted and that every possible effort should be made to insure the pupil's use of this method in his independent preparation of assigned

¹⁰ By apperception is meant here the conscious use of known elements in the solution of problems containing unknown elements.

lessons. Without indicating preference for any one special method we consider it desirable to reproduce descriptions of commendable types of class-room procedure which have appeared in various published articles and in reports of various committees and which, however much they may differ in detail, have the common object of teaching pupils to grasp the thought of a Latin sentence in the Latin order. These descriptions are given in Appendix B at the end of this volume.

It will be noted in the quotations given in Appendix B that strong emphasis is placed upon the fluent oral reading of Latin. Without question any serious attempt to develop the power to take in the sense of a Latin sentence involves from the beginning far greater emphasis than is commonly placed today upon the development of ability to read Latin aloud, and to read it clearly, with regard for natural grouping and phrasing and with some attempt at proper expression.

A first prerequisite for the oral reading of Latin is ability to pronounce Latin clearly with readiness and reasonable accuracy. We recommend, however, that this ability be acquired through imitation and constant practice, in fact by a sort of gradual absorption, rather than through the study of rules. Writing very simple Latin from dictation is also recommended as an excellent method, especially in earlier stages of the work, of helping the pupil to form an automatic association between the spoken word and the printed or written symbol. The memorizing and reproduction in oral or written form of sentences and paragraphs, comprehension of very simple Latin on hearing it, questions and answers in Latin, and the use of Latin songs, dialogues and plays are other methods of overcoming the pupil's auditional dread of the new language and of helping him to realize that language is fundamentally a matter of the ear and of the voice. Furthermore, an early and thorough training in the oral use of Latin is es-

sential to a fluent and intelligent reading of Latin, whether this reading be audible or silent.

In this connection we wish to express our belief that emphasis in teaching should be placed on ability to read with proper expression and with due regard to grouping of words rather than upon a meticulous attention to marking of quantities. In the reading of Latin poetry, likewise, more emphasis should be placed upon fluent and expressive metrical reading than upon the mechanics of scansion.

It is assumed that the Roman method of pronunciation will be employed in the reading of Latin. We recommend, however, that pupils be taught to pronounce Latin words, phrases and proper names domesticated in English in accordance with their English pronunciation.

We recommend that practice in comprehending Latin at sight be included in the work of every recitation. Ninety-seven per cent of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire indicated their belief that sight translation should be made a regular part of the work, and a majority of these teachers expressed the opinion that from one-fifth to one-fourth of the class time should be devoted to this type of work. It is evident from the report given by fourth-year pupils who answered the question blank on content and method that class-room practice in many schools needs to be improved in this respect. Thirteen per cent of these pupils report that they have never received training in methods of attack upon the advance assignment through reading at sight in class; 19% report that they received this training "sometimes"; 37% once or twice a week, and only about 30% stated that they received this training as often as three times a week.

We further recommend that fluent oral reading of the Latin be required as the first step in the interpretation of a Latin sentence or paragraph, and that every effort be made

to see that the pupils follow this method of attack in their independent preparation of assigned reading. Seventy-five per cent of the teachers filling out the questionnaire consider reading Latin aloud before translation one of the most effective methods of developing the pupil's ability to comprehend the thought of a Latin passage. However, only 43% of the pupils filling out the question blank on content and method reported that they were commonly asked in class recitation to read the Latin aloud, and only 7% stated that they followed this practice in their independent study of a Latin passage.

Oral use of very easy Latin in brief phrases or sentences, especially in the form of question and answer between teacher and pupil or between pupil and pupil, will help to give quicker facility in the reading and understanding of Latin. Any teacher of fair ability can acquire in two or three months a large enough store of Latin talk to make this effective. The skill thus developed will grow rapidly with daily use.

We are not unmindful that literary classical Latin is the standard for reading and writing Latin and that Anglicized Latin is not good Latin reading. Nevertheless there should be much freedom in *talking* Latin so long as the usage does not actually violate the canons of good spoken Latin, the Latin used in the daily talk of cultivated Roman men, women and children. In this connection it should also be noted that much late Latin is good Latin, such as the medieval *vox populi vox dei*, and even such highly modern locutions as *pocula pomeridiana* for "afternoon tea" and *tempus luciservans* for "daylight saving time," and that *fabula motoria* will do well enough for "the movies." We may even go a step farther on occasions when phrases of Law Latin or Church Latin well express the thought and may use them whether or not they conform closely to accepted canons of spoken Latin. Here as everywhere living directness is better than inanimate precision. Flat barbarisms are of course to be avoided. Yet

Latin in daily talk need not be Ciceronian to be correct. Erasmus, a master in style, is a fine instance of this, and we need not hesitate to follow his lead in using Latin as a living language. Late Latin, pagan, patristic, medieval and modern, is rich in good as well as in poor material. The good material should be selected and used. It will do much to give variety. It will do more in giving young students the beginnings of insight into the long unbroken continuity of Latin, its adaptability for expressing modern ideas and its immense place and influence in human history.

It is generally admitted that the processes of speaking, reading and writing, especially when taken together, strengthen each other and furnish the most effective training for understanding any language. In this way the ear, voice, eye and hand combine to fix deeply in consciousness the words spoken, heard, seen and written. Practice in writing Latin should therefore accompany the reading and oral use of Latin from the start. It helps to make the pupil's knowledge exact and his practice correct, and thereby also helps to give him more certainty and confidence in his reading of Latin as Latin. Its beginnings should be extremely simple and its development very gradual. When the pupil has advanced so far as to be able in the third year of the course to write correctly single sentences considerably simpler than the prose Latin he is reading, the primary purpose of his school practice in writing Latin is accomplished, namely, the development of ability to write simple Latin as an aid to reading Latin. Writing periodic Latin is too much to expect or even to desire, except in the case of pupils who have a gift for composition. While, therefore, we strongly urge that the simpler Latin writing be required for the purpose stated, we believe there is neither time nor justification for exacting more in the four-year course.

As has already been shown the majority of the teachers fill-

ing out the general questionnaire are in agreement with our recommendations that the pupils should be trained to take in the thought of a Latin sentence in the Latin order before translating. Methods of procedure most highly recommended are in order of preference:

Training pupils to take in the thought of each word-group as it appears and then to translate it.

Training pupils to grasp the meaning of the entire sentence in the Latin order and then to translate it.

Training pupils to read a Latin sentence and to answer questions upon it without translating it.

The methods to be employed in testing the pupil's comprehension of the thought of a sentence or paragraph, whether prepared or at sight, will naturally depend upon the difficulty of the passage and upon the kind and amount of training which the pupils have had. In the case of very simple, easy sentences or even more extended passages an intelligent oral reading in Latin may be all that is necessary, especially if pupils are encouraged to ask questions about points that are not clear. We especially recommend the regular use of carefully prepared questions on the thought of the passage. Questions for this purpose should be so constructed as to require for a correct answer the understanding of a whole sentence or series of sentences and not such as can be answered from a knowledge of only one or two words or phrases.²⁰ The complete adequacy of this method of testing comprehension is indicated by the fact that the very high correlation of .975 was found between the scores on the Ullman-Kirby test when taken as a comprehension test and when taken by the same pupils as a translation test. The same correlation of .975 was also found between the scores on the Ullman-Kirby test taken as a comprehension test and the Brown sentence translation

²⁰ For examples of questions of this type see the Ullman-Kirby *Latin Comprehension Test*, Part II, Chapter 3, Section 2.

test²¹ taken by the same pupils. The practice of testing comprehension by means of questions of this type has two advantages over exclusive dependence upon translation: (1) it places the emphasis in the preparation upon a perception of the thought rather than upon the superficial use of words; and (2) it makes it possible for a class to do the reading assignment more rapidly and thus provides more time for the careful criticism and revision of such portions of the assignment as are actually to be translated in class.

Questions in Latin to be answered in Latin, which for other important reasons we believe should be a part of class-room procedure, and telling in English the story contained in the passage, preferably without referring to the Latin text, are other useful methods of testing the pupil's understanding of the Latin without having recourse to translation.

The function of translation as an important exercise *following* the comprehension of the thought in Latin will be discussed later. It is clear, however, that in actual practice translation is also frequently regarded as a means by which the thought is to be comprehended or as the chief means of testing the pupil's comprehension of the thought. Thus, while the great majority of teachers answering the general questionnaire advise training pupils to take in the thought of a Latin sentence in the Latin order, over half of them also express the opinion that pupils should be trained to get the meaning of a Latin sentence by translating each word in the order in which it comes in Latin, and about one-third say that pupils should be required to translate prepared assignments "literally." We believe that these apparently inconsistent views are the expression of real confusion as to the various functions of "translation" and of a corresponding confusion in the use of the term which seriously affects class-room prac-

²¹ See H. A. Brown, *Latin in Secondary Schools*, p. 31.

tice and the pupil's method of study. Translation of Latin into English may and under present conditions of content and methods does commonly serve three different uses: (1) as a method by which the pupil works out the meaning of a Latin sentence or paragraph; (2) as a method by which the pupil shows in class recitation or examination that he has worked out the meaning of a Latin sentence or paragraph; and (3) as a method of training the pupil in English expression.

We have already expressed our belief that the first of these three uses is unsound in theory and wasteful in practice and that the second, if it constitutes the sole or even the chief means of testing the pupil's understanding of a reading assignment, inevitably encourages wrong methods of study and inhibits to a large extent the proper development of the normal and legitimate use of translation as a sure training in English expression.

We believe that the application of the one word "translation" to practices so divergent as those just described leads to confusion of standards, and accordingly recommend that the word "translation" be limited in its application to a version of the passage which conforms to the genius of the English language and that teachers and pupils who find it desirable to make use of intermediate versions which employ English words but which follow in word order or idiom the genius of the Latin language apply to such versions some such term as a "metaphrase" or a "construe."²²

²² "Construing" is a very common practice in the schools of Germany and France but "great stress is laid on distinguishing the two versions—the construe and the translation. . . . But the aim of construing is to make itself dispensable as soon as possible. In the Upper Forms it is equivalent to a severe reprimand when a pupil, getting into a tangle with a sentence, hears from his teacher in tones of thunder: '*Dann konstruieren Sie gefälligst.*'" From the "Teaching of the Classics in the Schools of Germany," a Special Report on Educational Subjects published for the Board of Education by Wyman and Sons, London (1910), Volume 20, p. 140.

While recommending that a reading method following the Latin word order be regularly employed by the pupil in his attack upon a Latin sentence, we recognize the fact that in the interpretation of difficult passages it will at times be necessary to resort to a detailed analysis. We urge, however, that in all such cases the pupil should be made clearly to understand the difference between this process and the reading method to be regularly employed.

THE ANALYTICAL METHOD

A minority of teachers filling out the general questionnaire advise training pupils "to look first for the verb and translate that, and then fit in the rest of the sentence," or "to look first for the subject, then for the verb, and then for the object." We believe that the Latin-order method of attack upon the Latin sentence is far better adapted to the development of real power to read Latin as Latin. However, the analytical method is at any rate definite and any definite method consistently followed by pupils and teachers will produce facility in the use of that method. It is vitally important that whatever method be adopted, pupils should be made conscious of the method and should be trained through constant practice in sight work to use the method in the independent preparation of their lessons.

The following "Directions for Translating," taken from Welch and Duffield's *Eutropius* (Macmillan), definitely exemplify the analytical method:

1. Pick out the finite verb (the predicate) and find out its voice, mood, tense, number and person.
2. Find the subject or subjects with which it agrees. Translate.
3. If the verb is incomplete, find the object or completion. Translate.
4. See if the subject is enlarged by any of the methods mentioned below; if it is, translate, taking the enlargements with the subject.

5. See if the object is enlarged; if it is, translate, taking the enlargements with the object.
6. Take the extensions of the predicate. Translate.
7. Translate finally, putting in the introductory conjunctions or other words not yet taken.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS

We believe that the general method we have recommended for training pupils to comprehend Latin as Latin will at the same time contribute more effectively to the development of desirable general habits of reflective thinking than the use of the analytical method. Whether our purpose in teaching a pupil how to attack the Latin sentence is the development of his ability to read and understand Latin or the development of his general intellectual power, we are led to the same conclusion as to the general method to be employed. If the object is to teach pupils to read Latin, it will be agreed that the best method of approach will be one which approximates most closely the process by which the Romans themselves perceived the thought of the Latin sentence; or, if the aim is development of mental power, this purpose can best be attained through training in processes that teach a pupil to control the operations of his own mind and to form his final judgments logically and gradually from the evidence furnished by the Latin sentence as it proceeds and develops. Treated in this way every Latin sentence becomes an exercise in consecutive and self-correcting thinking instead of a vexing puzzle. Only in this way can the pupil gain the most valuable training the comprehension of the Latin sentence can give, namely, constant practice in suspending judgment, in noting and defining the limits within which the final judgment must fall, in estimating the relative value of evidence as it accumulates and in developing a lively but none the less scientific imagination.²³

²³ "Reflective thinking, in short, means judgment suspended during further inquiry; the most important factor in the training of good mental habits

Accordingly, we believe that the disciplinary values implicit in the progressive development of ability to comprehend Latin will be best attained through a careful training in taking in the thought of a Latin sentence as it develops, and in thus thinking to some degree as a Roman thought.

The teachers answering the general questionnaire are also of opinion that methods of study which best develop ability to read Latin are the best methods for insuring attainment of the disciplinary objectives. Ninety-six per cent of the teachers believe that the methods employed in teaching pupils to comprehend Latin should be such as to contribute to the attainment of the disciplinary objectives and the methods which they believe will contribute most effectively to this end are in order of preference as follows:

Training pupils to grasp the meaning of an entire sentence in the Latin order and then to translate the sentence as a whole.

Training pupils to take in the thought of each word-group as it appears and then to translate it.

Training pupils to read a Latin sentence and to answer questions upon it without translating it.

We recommend that much more attention be given to a full understanding of the thought-content of the reading. We make this recommendation both because of the belief that pupils should be taught to regard language primarily as a means of conveying thought and because of the clues which a clear understanding of the story up to a given point will give for the comprehension of the thought of the passage which follows. Almost all the teachers answering the general questionnaire express the opinion that emphasis should be placed upon the story as an aid to the comprehension of consists in acquiring the attitude of suspended conclusion, and in mastering the various methods of searching for new materials to corroborate or to refute the first suggestions that occur." J. Dewey in *How We Think*, p. 13.

the thought of a Latin passage. The types of class-room questions recommended by the teachers as valuable for this purpose are in order of preference as follows:

"What causes does Caesar assign for the migration of the Helvetians?"

"Tell what connection this passage has with what has gone before."

"Tell the story contained in the passage immediately preceding the advance assignment."

"What is the chief point in this sentence (or paragraph)?"

"Tell briefly the story contained in the advance assignment."

"Who came to Caesar?" "For what purpose?"

"Tell what you think will follow."

It is recommended that teachers should frequently give the pupils a general outline of the story contained in the advance assignment. The majority of teachers answering the general questionnaire advise this practice, but the majority of pupils filling out the question blank on content and method indicate that they have not been given assistance of this sort.

One important criterion which we have recommended for selection of the reading content of the course is its suitability for contributing to the attainment of the historical-cultural objectives. Obviously the attainment of these objectives is dependent upon the use of such methods as will enable the pupil to understand the content of the Latin read.

We have already expressed the opinion that large appreciation of the aesthetic qualities of the Latin authors is not to be expected in the case of the majority of secondary pupils and that for most pupils the development of this appreciation will come mainly through the process of translating selected passages into English which resembles the style of the original. We wish, however, to emphasize our belief that the methods recommended for the development of power to read and understand Latin as Latin are precisely those which will contribute

most effectively to a full and direct appreciation of those aesthetic qualities in the works of any author which are inevitably lost in translation. "A translation may be good as translation, but it cannot be an adequate translation of the original. It may be a good poem; it may be better than the original; but it cannot be an adequate reproduction; it cannot be the same thing in another language, producing the same effect upon the mind. And the cause lies deep in the nature of poetry."²⁴

2. *The Translation of Latin into English*

We believe the primary function of translation is the development of the power of thinking and of expressing thought through the process of putting into adequate English a thought already comprehended in Latin. We have already expressed the opinion that a large part of the Latin text should be read and comprehended in Latin without translation. For such portions of the text as are set for translation a standard of translation should be required which will secure exact discrimination in the ideas expressed in Latin and an adequate expression of these ideas in English.

Over 96% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire advise regularly requiring pupils to translate prepared assignments into idiomatic English. The studies already reported indicate, however, that this standard has not been generally attained in actual practice. It is clear that more systematic provision should be made than at present for careful criticism and revision of the translations presented by pupils, and that the final version should be in really good English.²⁵ We believe that if such a standard is insisted upon in class-

²⁴Quoted by H. R. Wilson from Lewes' Life of Goethe in "Translations in Relation to the Originals," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (February, 1923), p. 265.

²⁵See T. L. Bousearen, "Artistic Translation as an Aid to English Composition," *The Classical Journal*, XVIII (April, 1923), pp. 408-410.

room practice, it will be reflected in the independent preparation of assigned lessons and that exercises of this sort cannot fail to increase measurably the pupil's facility and exactness in the use of words. The reduction in the amount of Latin text to be read each year and the regular use of methods other than translation for testing comprehension of the thought should provide the time necessary for securing a fairly high standard of English in the translation of those passages which are set for translation.

The effort to secure from pupils a translation of the entire reading assignment of average length inevitably results in the acceptance of slovenly "translation English," which, while it may not lower the pupil's actual standard of English, certainly will not raise it. Moreover, the pupil in his effort to prepare a translation of the usual length and difficulty often resorts to a mere exchange of verbal symbols with a resulting version that not only fails to express the thought of the passage in adequate English but often fails to convey any reasonable meaning.²⁶ Any practice which permits the pupil to assume that he may string words together without semblance of rational meaning is vicious.

Translation should be neither an uneconomical method of awkwardly deciphering the meaning of a Latin sentence or paragraph nor the sole or even the chief means of testing the pupil's comprehension of his Latin reading. We believe that translation of a single page or paragraph into adequate English will be of more value to the pupil in developing his power to speak and write really good English and his appreciation of literature than many pages done into "translation English."

We therefore recommend that only so much of the reading assignment at any stage in the course be set for translation

²⁶ See G. R. Miller and T. H. Briggs, "The Effect of Latin Translation on English," *School Review*, XXXI (December, 1923), pp. 756-762.

into English as the pupil can be reasonably expected to turn into English which will accurately interpret the thought of the Latin, will be grammatically correct, and in the case of the more advanced pupils will approach in style and in beauty the original from which it is translated.

Specific methods which the majority of teachers filling out the general questionnaire recommend for teaching translation of Latin into English are in order of preference:

Requiring for the review lesson a higher standard of translation than for the advance lesson.

Making definite suggestions regarding special problems in translation (e.g., ablative absolute constructions, relative pronouns at the beginning of a sentence).

Requiring occasional written translation of special assignments.

Encouraging criticism by members of the class of the English used by the pupil translating.

Over 80% of teachers filling out the general questionnaire believe that a distinction should be made in the quality of English required of the pupil in translating Caesar, for example, as compared with Cicero and Vergil. Specific elements in this requirement for the two later authors are a more discriminating choice of words, a more literary style, greater freedom in translation, and in particular the use of a more rhetorical tone in the translation of Cicero and of a more poetical tone in the translation of Vergil.

In order to furnish teachers with information as to what may reasonably be regarded as proper standards of English to be required in class-room practice and thus to assist them in raising the standard of translation, we have prepared with the coöperation of about one hundred Latin teachers a series of translation "scales," with steps ranging from the excellent to the utterly worthless.²⁷ The level which a majority

²⁷ See S. A. Leonard, "Scales for Improving the Quality of Translation," Part II, Chapter IV, Section 7.

of these teachers regarded as representing the lowest acceptable translation is also indicated in the scales. It should be noted, however, that in the process of working out these scales it was disclosed that idiomatic English was not regarded by all teachers as a practicable requirement. In using these translation scales it will need to be borne in mind that the relative position of the various translations included in the scales has been affected by this point of view.

3. Collateral Reading in English

The importance of emphasizing the thought content of the Latin reading material for the purpose of aiding in the actual comprehension of the thought has already been pointed out. We recommend that the general historical setting of the text as a whole should also be continuously emphasized as soon as the first connected reading of a Latin author is begun. The dominating motive in the mind of a pupil as he attacks an advance lesson should be a desire to follow the progress of the story. If this purpose is to be attained, he must in the first place understand something of the setting of the story. A reading of Caesar or Cicero, for example, if not preceded by a careful study of the historical background, is almost certain to fail of this purpose. It seems quite impossible for the pupil to acquire this necessary background contemporaneously with his reading of the Latin text. We therefore recommend that some prescribed reading in English should precede the detailed study of Latin selections dealing with particular events or periods in order to give the pupil an intelligent understanding of the background and to enable him to fit what he reads in Latin into its place in the general scheme.

Equipped with a preliminary knowledge of the setting of the story secured from reading in English and from classroom discussions pupils should then be expected to understand the thought content of what is being read in Latin

from day to day and to understand its bearing upon the larger whole of which it forms a part. The following specific suggestions to this end were made by the teachers answering the general questionnaire:

An occasional review of the story from the beginning to the point reached by the class.

Frequent summaries of chapters in which important events are rounded out (e.g., the mutiny in Caesar's army during his campaign against Ariovistus).

Maps, plans or outlines upon the board which are modified as the reading proceeds.

The use of such devices as the following for vivifying the story:

(a) Class discussions

(b) Debates

(c) Dramatization

(d) Pictures and slides

(e) Reading such books as Whitehead's "The Standard Bearer," Holmes' "Caesar's Conquest of Gaul."

The collateral reading in English recommended as an integral part of the work of each year should have, however, a broader purpose than simply to assist in the interpretation of the Latin text read. It should be directed to developing familiarity with such phases of Roman life, history and thought as are adapted to the maturity, interest and capacity of pupils and as grow naturally out of the Latin reading. We believe that it will be better for the pupil to acquire a real understanding of a very few of these topics than to gain a superficial acquaintance with a larger number.

While this assigned outside reading in English will naturally be the most important method by which pupils will follow up a given topic, the following additional methods are suggested by the teachers answering the general questionnaire:

Use of pictures, slides and similar illustrative material.

Incidental allusion to these topics by the teacher in connection with the reading of the Latin text.

Oral and written reports by pupils on assigned topics.

Voluntary reading of Roman historical novels.

Brief informal talks given from time to time by the teacher.

Voluntary reading of stories from classical literature (e.g., Plutarch's Lives).

Exhibits prepared by pupils (topics worked out in the form of charts or models).

Note-books prepared by pupils.

We recommend that in the treatment of all the topics marked emphasis should be placed upon comparison with present-day events and situations, such as survivals of Roman governmental policies, laws and customs in the world of today, Rome's contribution to the solution of present social and political problems, and allusions to Roman customs as these appear in the English reading of the pupils or as they are reflected in English words.

B. VOCABULARY

The methods to be employed in the teaching of Latin vocabulary should be designed, as already suggested, to develop correct habits of independent study, to contribute both to the mastery of Latin vocabulary and to the attainment of the ultimate objectives which teachers consider valid for their pupils and which depend for their attainment upon a knowledge of Latin words, to involve the use of association and apperception, to enlist the interest of the pupil, and to encourage application of the facts and processes acquired in the study of Latin to the activities of life outside the Latin class.

We recommend that new words should first be met in an enlightening context, oral, written or printed, and that pupils through daily class-room practice in comprehension at sight should be trained to get at the meaning of most new words through intelligent use of the context with the assistance of such light as is often thrown upon the meaning by related Latin words and by English derivatives. The judgment of

the teachers answering the general questionnaire is entirely in harmony with these recommendations. In answer to the question as to which of seven methods listed²⁸ they believed should be most commonly employed by the pupil in getting the meaning of new Latin words the teachers indicated an overwhelming preference for the following:

Associating a new Latin word with English derivatives or with related Latin words before the word is met in a sentence.

Determining the meaning of a new Latin word from context, association with English derivatives or association with related Latin words as the new word is met in a sentence.

If pupils are actually to develop a strong habit of attacking new words in this way in the independent preparation of their lessons, it is clear that a more persistent effort must be made to give the necessary guidance through daily practice in comprehension or translation at sight. The Grise and Swan studies²⁹ show that over 50% of the pupils habitually turn at once to their vocabularies when they meet a new word, the majority of them without even stopping to consider what is the exact vocabulary form to be sought, while only a third of the pupils indicate that they are in the habit of using the methods recommended above in finding the meaning of a new word. These studies also show that whereas 85% of the pupils rank technical questions in syntax as among the most frequently asked in the Latin recitation, only 29% are equally familiar with class-room questions involving the determination of the meaning of a new word by methods such as those recommended above.

Further, if pupils are to develop ability to solve independently and upon their own initiative the meaning of new

²⁸ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

²⁹ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 6.

words, not only should class-room practice illustrate exactly what the pupils are expected to do outside of class but the text-book which confronts the pupil when he is preparing his lessons should be so constructed as to give the utmost help possible for the use of these methods. Particularly is this true during the first year's study of Latin when permanent habits of study are being formed.

We do not suggest that the methods here recommended can or should be used exclusively. There will be a proportion of new words whose meaning either cannot be determined by these methods or can be determined only by too large expenditure of time. The meaning of such words should be given outright by the teacher or be secured by the pupil through the vocabulary. The number of such words, however, should be kept down to the smallest number consistent with the ends in view. Furthermore, a good many new words may be learned with profit directly through the oral work recommended. The oral method is, however, a method of teaching rather than of learning and cannot be used by the pupil in acquiring new vocabulary by himself.

We believe that the methods recommended for learning Latin vocabulary also provide a better basis for developing desirable general habits of thinking than is established either by purely memoriter study or by the almost universal practice of consulting the vocabulary for the meaning of every unfamiliar word. Pupils who follow in daily preparation of their lesson the methods here recommended receive thereby very definite elementary training in the use of scientific method, which has for its main characteristic the provisional adoption of a series of assumptions which are to be accepted or rejected on the basis of tests applied. The assumptions, in this case, are the different possible meanings for the new word suggested by its context and its similarity to known Latin or English words; the test applied to each assumption in turn

is its capacity to "make sense." When pupils have developed facility in solving problems of this kind in Latin, their attention should be specifically called by means of appropriate illustrations to the identity of the method used with that employed in all scientific research.

The teachers answering the general questionnaire are in entire agreement with this view. Eighty-nine per cent of these teachers expressed the opinion that vocabulary should be so taught as to contribute to the attainment of the disciplinary objectives, and when asked to state which of the seven methods listed they believed would contribute most effectively to the attainment of the disciplinary objectives, indicated by almost unanimous vote their preference for the same two methods recommended above for the learning of Latin vocabulary, though in reverse order of importance, namely:

Determining the meaning of a new Latin word from context with English derivatives or association with related Latin words as the new word is met in a sentence.

Associating the new Latin word with English derivatives or with related Latin words before the word is met in a sentence.

Inasmuch as the spread of habits formed in the study of Latin is dependent in part upon the interest pupils feel in the various types of activity, it is of importance to note that the Grise and Swan studies show that problems of this type appeal to a larger proportion of pupils than do problems of a purely formal type.

In our recommendations regarding the vocabulary to be mastered thoroughly it has been indicated that from four to five hundred new words met in the first year and approximately five hundred words in each successive year should be selected for permanent retention. The words selected for permanent retention should be mastered with almost perfect thoroughness and exactness. To secure this result repeated drill will

be necessary; but we recommend that wherever practicable this drill be functional and associative rather than merely mechanical in character. That the teachers answering the general questionnaire are in agreement with this view is indicated by the relative emphasis they would attach to various possible methods of fixing the vocabulary already learned. These methods arranged in accordance with the preference indicated by teachers are:

Repeated association with English derivatives.

Drill on groups of related Latin words.

Frequent occurrence in reading material.

Vocabulary drills by means of such devices as perception cards, "spell-downs," and the like.

The majority of teachers attach comparatively small importance to formal reviews of lists of Latin or English words and there is unanimous agreement that the common practice of repeatedly looking up words in the vocabulary is not to be encouraged. The value of the writing of Latin as an aid in fixing vocabulary is generally recognized. We also recommend the oral use of Latin for this purpose.

Whatever methods are adopted for fixing the vocabulary to be permanently retained, we believe that a degree of attainment should be achieved which will adequately justify the claim commonly made that Latin is a peculiarly suitable vehicle for the development of accuracy and thoroughness. Teachers should, therefore, point out the value of such accuracy and thoroughness not only for the study of Latin but for the study of other school subjects and for all situations in every-day life in which an accurate grasp of details is necessary for success.

ENGLISH DERIVATIVES

We believe that if the method here recommended for the learning of Latin vocabulary is actually used by pupils in

their daily study, it will lead naturally and surely to the complementary activity of employing the known Latin in interpreting unfamiliar English derivatives. Almost all the teachers answering the general questionnaire express the opinion that pupils should be trained to associate new Latin words as they are learned with already familiar English derivatives and believe that pupils should be trained to use Latin words learned to explain the meaning of less familiar English derivatives.

The methods recommended for the acquisition and fixing of vocabulary are in our judgment precisely those which will provide conditions most favorable for attaining those ultimate objectives which depend upon the application of Latin vocabulary to English and to other languages. The results of the tests in English vocabulary given in the national testing programme show that Latin pupils make markedly greater growth in their knowledge of Latin-derived words than non-Latin pupils make, but the information furnished by the teachers of the pupils taking the tests shows that in the majority of schools participating considerable attention was given to the teaching of derivatives in the classes concerned. The Philadelphia controlled experiment shows that in the case of those classes in which the work was so organized that no assistance in the teaching of English derivatives was furnished either by teacher or text-book, the carry-over was very slight, but that in the case of those classes in which specific efforts were made through both the teacher and the text-book to teach English derivatives, a marked growth was attained. The questions relating to transfer have been discussed in an earlier section of this chapter. Their application to the problem of teaching English derivatives is obvious. In the case of the majority of young pupils a knowledge of the meaning of Latin words cannot be counted on to produce automatically the power to understand their English derivatives. To recog-

nize the many opportunities for applying a knowledge of Latin words to the interpretation of English derivatives calls for a larger capacity than is involved in the acquisition of the original knowledge. No teacher expects pupils to acquire this original knowledge except as a result of repeated effort. Still less can pupils be expected to develop ready ability to apply the facts learned to fields outside of Latin without an equally steady training based upon material carefully selected and upon methods definitely designed to increase the pupil's capacity not simply to make a particular application when a problem is specifically assigned but to recognize independently the various opportunities for application afforded in the pupil's own reading. Not until this last mentioned capacity has been developed may we be reasonably sure that the *habit* of making such applications will continue to function in the later activities of life after the study of Latin has ceased.

The teachers answering the general questionnaire were asked to indicate the relative emphasis they would attach to several methods suggested for developing in the pupil the habit of associating Latin words with their English derivatives. The methods suggested by the teachers arranged in the order of preference are:

Encouraging pupils to discover independently new derivatives from Latin words already learned.

Encouraging pupils to discover in their English reading derivatives discussed in class.

Asking pupils to discover independently new derivatives from Latin words specially assigned.

Encouraging pupils to use in sentences derivatives discussed in class.

Definite assignment of English derivatives for explanation on the basis of their etymology.

In connection with the last mentioned method we recommend that the means employed should be such as, without de-

stroying interest, will encourage the same accuracy and thoroughness as are required in other parts of the Latin work. The teachers answering the general questionnaire indicated that they would attach most importance in class-room practice to requiring a complete analysis of English derivatives showing the force of prefix, root and suffix, and that they regarded as next in importance requiring an explanation of the meaning of the English derivatives on the basis of its derivation, but without complete etymological analysis. Teachers attach little importance to class-room practice in the association of the English word with the Latin original without requiring an explanation of the meaning of either.

We do not, however, recommend that etymological analysis be required in the case of all words studied. Word-study, while interesting and even fascinating to many boys and girls, may be made so mechanical and technical as to lose its vitality and to discourage initiative on the part of the pupils.

SPELLING OF ENGLISH DERIVATIVES

The results of the Coxe study, based on the Columbus-Rochester controlled experiment in spelling, show that only as the result of definite training in making associations between the spelling of Latin and English words may really satisfying results be secured. Furthermore, the same study shows both that the best positive results are secured when these associations are finally expressed in the form of definite principles or rules and that a certain slight but appreciable interference with the spelling of non-Latin words which the study of Latin produces may be eliminated by the use of definite principles of association.³⁰

³⁰ For a list of the principles or rules used in this controlled experiment see Part II, Appendix B.

LATIN WORDS AND PHRASES IN ENGLISH

With reference to acquiring satisfactory ability to explain the meanings of Latin words, phrases, abbreviations or quotations occurring in an English setting, we recommend that teachers who regard this objective as valid for their pupils should arrange to include in the work of the first two years the vocabulary necessary for the interpretation of such material and that a definite study of the most frequently occurring words and phrases should be included in the regular work of the class, preferably in their English setting.³¹

TECHNICAL TERMS

There is no better intermediate step in training pupils to use in the later activities of life facts and processes acquired in the study of Latin than training them to use their Latin vocabulary in the solution of linguistic problems met in their other school subjects. We recommend that pupils be provided with definite lists of technical and semi-technical terms found in the text-books of other subjects³² and that they be given sufficient initial training in making the necessary associations to insure acquaintance with the opportunities afforded and to provide an incentive for making further discoveries and applications on their own initiative. Eighty-five per cent of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire advise that definite efforts be made to secure the coöperation of the teachers of other school subjects in this matter. Every effort should be made to secure such coöperation. If a pupil becomes aware that he will actually be held responsible in the class work of other subjects for what he has learned in Latin, any tendency to keep his Latin in a closed compartment will be checked.

³¹ For a list of the most frequently occurring Latin words and phrases see Part II, Appendix C.

³² For a list of technical and semi-technical terms found in the text-books of various high-school subjects see Part II, Appendix A.

LATIN AND THE ROMANCE LANGUAGES

The results of the national testing programme and of the controlled experiment in correlating Latin and French show, as already stated, that teachers who consider increased ability to master the vocabulary of French and other Romance languages a valid objective for their pupils will need to give their pupils some explicit training in making and holding the connection between Latin and other languages. We offer the following suggestions in this connection:

That the historical relation between Latin and French and other Romance languages be pointed out with illustrations of the close relation of words in these languages to their Latin originals.³³

That during the first year of Latin before many of the pupils are presumably studying a second foreign language an attitude of anticipated familiarity with the new language and a favorable condition for later application be developed by the occasional but systematic introduction of appropriate anticipatory questions, such as: "If you should study French next year and should meet the word *terre*, what do you think it would mean?"

That in the case of pupils studying Latin and French contemporaneously definite efforts should be made to train them to apply Latin vocabulary to French and vice versa.

TESTING ATTAINMENT

In so far as the various application objectives are regarded by teachers as valid for their pupils and are consequently made a definite part of class-room instruction and outside preparation, it is strongly recommended that pupils should be held responsible for attaining these objectives as well as the immediate objectives, and that tests and examinations should regularly include questions on the more important aims of the subject. If such tests are limited exclusively to

³³ For a list of French words related by derivation to commonly used Latin words see Part II, Appendix D.

only two or three phases of instruction, pupils will inevitably come to regard any other class-room activities as purely incidental and will limit their serious efforts to those phases of the work for which they expect to find themselves held strictly responsible. For example, the great majority of teachers believe that pupils should be taught to work out the meanings of new words through context, English derivatives and related Latin words, but the Pound-Helle study discloses no instance in which pupils are asked to solve the meaning of a new word by any of these methods and only 2% of first-year papers and 6% of second-year papers contain questions on the etymology of Latin words or on Latin word-formation. Again, the teaching of English derivatives is regarded as a valid objective by 98% of the teachers answering the general questionnaire—a larger proportion than considered as a valid objective for the course as a whole either the ability to read new Latin after the study of the language in school or college had ceased or progressive development of power to read Latin—and 70% of the pupils indicated that questions on English derivatives were very commonly asked in the Latin recitations. The Pound-Helle study, however, shows that only 42% of first-year papers and 27% of second-year papers contained questions on English derivatives. Only one paper contained a question testing the pupil's ability to use his knowledge of Latin in interpreting the technical and semi-technical terms of Latin origin found in other school subjects. Only 6% of first-year papers and 3% of second-year papers contained questions testing the pupil's ability to understand Latin words, phrases, abbreviations and quotations occurring in English. As previously stated, no paper of any year contained a question involving the application of Latin to English spelling or a question testing the capacity of the pupil to use his knowledge of Latin in the mastery of other foreign languages. We therefore recommend that the more

important ultimate objectives as well as the immediate objectives be regularly represented by appropriate questions in all tests and examinations.

HABIT OF SEEING RELATIONS

We believe that the application objectives of the teaching of Latin provide a most convenient and serviceable medium for development of the general habit of discovering identical elements in different situations and experiences and of making true generalizations, which should be one of the most valuable products of the study of Latin. Unless this general habit is developed as a conscious aim, the specific transfers, while worth while in themselves, will usually be limited in their spread to the specific fields within which they were originally developed. Furthermore, the development of such a general habit gives unity, coherence and an ultimate goal to the various types of application discussed above.

C. SYNTAX

The methods to be employed in the teaching of Latin syntax should be such as to develop correct habits of independent study, to contribute both to the mastery of Latin syntax and to the attainment of the ultimate objectives which teachers consider valid for their pupils, to involve the use of association and apperception, to enlist the interest of the pupil, and to encourage the application of the facts and processes acquired in the study of Latin to the activities of life outside the Latin class.

We recommend that all syntactical constructions should first be met by the pupils in an appropriate context, preferably that supplied by a continuous narrative, and that pupils should be trained to discover first the grammatical idea and next the way in which the idea is expressed. In the earliest stages most of the principles to be learned in Latin will already

have been met in English. As each principle is taken up in Latin the pupil should be led to recognize the identity of the grammatical idea with that already met in English and to observe the ways in which this idea is expressed in the two languages. The attention of the pupil should be particularly directed to any method of expressing a given idea in English which is identical with or similar to the method used in Latin.³⁴ In some cases it may prove desirable to develop a given grammatical principle through the use of Latin or English sentences illustrating the principle before the idea is encountered in actual reading, but we believe that the poor grasp of syntactical principles disclosed by the results of the national testing programme is due in large measure to the lack of immediate incentives for the acquisition of each new principle and that such incentives will be furnished far better by a consciousness of actual need for such knowledge arising from the pupil's experiences in actual reading.

The teachers answering the general questionnaire agree that syntactical principles in Latin should be presented in this way and in relation to similar principles in English. When asked to indicate which of six methods listed³⁵ they believed

³⁴ "A skilful use of the analogies in the mother language helps towards the grasp of the Latin idiom. We want to lead up to the accusative and infinitive which occurs in the next piece in the reading book. Instead of starting with the rule 'After verbs *declarandi et sentiendi* the subject stands in the accusative case and the verb in the infinitive mood, the predicate agrees with the subject in the accusative,' we refer back to two sentences which have already occurred in the reading book. '*Videmus stellas in caelo esse.*' '*Credo hominem probum esse.*' But, while we cannot say 'I hear the man to be honest,' still less, 'I hear the man to have been ejected,' or 'to be about to die,' this is the regular way of stating a fact after a verb of knowing, thinking or stating in Latin." From "The Teaching of Classics in Secondary Schools in Germany," in a Special Report on Educational Subjects, published for the Board of Education by Wyman and Sons, London (1910), volume 20, p. 134.

³⁵ See Part II, Section III, Chapter 2.

should be most commonly employed in teaching a new syntactical principle, they expressed a preference for the three following methods in the order given:

Developing the grammatical principle through written or printed Latin sentences illustrating the principle.

Developing the grammatical principle through English sentences embodying the same principle.

Meeting each construction first in the Latin reading material and then developing from the context the grammatical principle involved.

We believe the early introduction of a greater abundance of easy connected reading will permit greater emphasis upon the third method listed above and correspondingly less upon the first method than the reading material now commonly used permits. These methods need not be used exclusively. Some grammatical principles, for example, are best developed through oral practice; but this method of teaching syntax is subject to the same limitations as were noted in connection with the teaching of vocabulary through oral practice.

We recommend in particular that the learning of a formal rule of syntax be postponed until the pupil has encountered the principle involved in his actual reading and has already informally identified the grammatical idea and observed the way in which it is expressed in Latin. A "rule" then becomes a formulation of his own experience that a certain idea is to be expressed in a certain way.

We further recommend that emphasis be placed upon development of the pupil's ability to solve new syntactical problems independently on the basis of his previous experience with similar principles in Latin or in English, and that problems which call for his individual initiative should be definitely assigned.

In the use of this method the utmost care should be taken

to avoid the error of allowing pupils to make hasty generalizations on the basis of insufficient data. If, however, the teacher sees to it that the pupil has had repeated experience with a given idea in actual reading before he attempts to make a generalization and to formulate a "rule," the danger of this error will be greatly reduced. If the inference is to be made from illustrative sentences supplied by the text-book or the teacher, either enough illustrations should be given to correct any tendency "to jump at conclusions," or it should be made clear to the pupil that the illustrations given may be assumed to be typical. We realize that the latter method is inferential in form only, but believe that, even so, a valuable training in general method can be gained thereby if the process is carefully safeguarded.

It should also be noted that if pupils are to be expected to use the training thus given in activities outside the Latin class, specific illustrations of the identity of the method used in Latin with that employed in other intellectual activities should be given from time to time.

Ninety-three per cent of teachers answering the general questionnaire believe that Latin syntax should be so taught as to contribute to the attainment of the disciplinary objectives. When asked to indicate which of the six methods listed they believe contributed most effectively to the attainment of the disciplinary objectives, a large majority indicated that the same three methods given above were precisely those which would be most effective for this end. Less than 10% of the teachers believe that the memorization of rules of syntax in advance of actual reading experience with the principle is a valuable practice.

It will be observed that much emphasis is placed in these recommendations upon the desirability of making an explicit distinction between the underlying syntactical *idea* expressed

in a given word, phrase or clause, and the *method of expressing* that idea. A clear recognition on the part of the pupil of the distinction between these two is important for several reasons. It permits of a discriminating attack by teacher and pupil upon each of the two problems of syntax by methods appropriate to each. The grammatical idea is the underlying logical relationship found in a given word, phrase or clause and the approach to the problem may therefore be made on a logical basis. The method of expressing an idea is, on the other hand, a matter of accepted usage in a given language. It will frequently be sufficient for the pupil to understand the *idea* expressed by a given word, phrase or clause (*what it tells* about the rest of the sentence) without at the time coming to final conclusions as to how that idea is to be expressed. Pupils may and should encounter a given idea several times in their reading before they are ready to formulate a statement defining the usage.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

Furthermore in learning to make this distinction between the idea and the expression of the idea pupils are acquiring the fundamental basis for developing a knowledge of the principles of general language structure. Syntactical ideas are universal and when once recognized as such present a tangible demonstration of the ultimate solidarity of the human race. The extent to which pupils gain this conception through Latin depends upon the extent to which in the teaching of Latin syntax stress is laid upon the logical and therefore universal character of all grammatical ideas. On the other hand there are similarities between Latin and English in the methods of expressing ideas because of the historical relation between Latin and English. Consequently every identification of Latin and English grammatical principles and every analogous iden-

tification with the same principles occurring in other languages furnish a fresh object lesson in the historical development of the Indo-European peoples.

FIXING SYNTACTICAL PRINCIPLES

We recommend that the chief method to be employed for fixing grammatical principles after they have been ascertained should be the use of oral and written Latin. Oral Latin should be used to supplement and in part to replace the writing of Latin in the earlier stages of the work. This oral work should be based on the text read and may consist of turning sentences in the singular into sentences in the plural and vice versa, of making changes in the person, tense or voice, or of answering in Latin questions asked in Latin. Through the use of oral work errors can be immediately corrected or prevented and a sort of grammatical conscience created. It is better to prevent the occurrence of errors than to have to eradicate them after their occurrence. The use of questions and answers in Latin may well be continued throughout the course as a method of fixing syntactical principles. Questions for this purpose should be so constructed as to involve in reply the use of the syntactical principles and forms which it is desired to fix.³⁶ We do not, however, recommend that oral

³⁶ "After a section has been gone through carefully, all books are turned over and the teacher puts questions based on the text to the class. Each answer must be a complete sentence in itself, and the word which answers the question must come first in the answer. This exercise trains to careful observation in the reading of the text and plasticity of expression. In the first lessons this reproduction of question and answer will perhaps be used after each sentence in the reader; the question words used—*quis? quid? cur? quando? quot?*—are written on the blackboard and are easily picked up. This is, of course, practically an exercise in retroversion, and might easily develop into a mere parrot repetition if the teacher did not vary his question skilfully. As soon as facility is acquired, a longer section, say a whole story, is taken, and the following may serve as a sample: *Cum adolescentulus Romanus in castris amicis clipeum*

work should be carried so far as to displace the writing of Latin. "Writing maketh an exact man." The teachers filling out the general questionnaire express the opinion that the writing of Latin is the most effective method for fixing grammatical principles. We recommend that exercises to be translated from English into Latin should be sharply limited in the range of vocabulary and syntactical principles involved, that

pulcrum et splendidum monstraret, Marius: 'Cur laudas,' inquit, 'clipeum tuum? strenuorum Romanorum fiducia non in sinistra sed in dextra est.'

"This is the seventeenth piece in Wulff's Reader, and would be taken approximately in the eighth week of learning Latin.

Master. *Quid adolescentulus monstravit?*

Boy. *Clipeum splendidum et pulcrum monstravit.*

M. *Cui monstravit?*

B. *Amicis suis monstravit.*

M. *Ubi monstravit?*

B. *In castris Romanis monstravit.*

M. *Quid Marius id spectans exclamavit?*

B. *Ne laudaveris clipeum tuum.*

M. *Quid adolescentulo Romano laudandum est?*

B. *Gladius adolescentulo Romano laudandus est.*

"During the first year the teacher will be content if the pupil in his answer simply rings the changes on the words used by the teacher in his questions; later on he expects the boy to cast his answer in quite a different mould and show some power of self-expression. The boys, too, become keen at showing how well they can do it. In the top classes, at the beginning of a translation lesson, one or two of the pupils are called upon to give a short *résumé* or *précis* of the previous lesson in Latin, and this will be followed by a few questions in Latin by the teacher, intended to supplement the narrative or to bring out some point that was not clear. The boys in the top classes gave these *résumés* without any fumbling in quite passable Latin; any mistake was at once corrected by their vigilant classmates. The whole showed a sense of mastery and the joy that mastery gives; '*possunt quia posse videntur.*' But such results would not be possible unless in the lower classes boys had been habituated to pick up Latin by ear and express themselves in Latin simply and shortly. Similarly boys in the third year were called upon to read a piece of *oratio obliqua* into direct speech." From "The Teaching of Classics in Secondary Schools in Germany," in a Special Report on Educational Subjects printed for the Board of Education by Wyman and Sons, London (1910), volume 20, pp. 130-132.

they should be easy, repetitious, free from special difficulties and far more interesting than at present. We believe that during the first two years of the course the greater part of the work in the writing of Latin should be done during the class period under the direct supervision of the teacher, and that a discussion of the syntactical principles involved and some oral practice with sentences illustrating the principles should precede the writing.

The teachers answering the general questionnaire, when asked to indicate which of seven methods listed³⁷ they believed should be commonly employed in teaching pupils to write Latin, expressed their preference for the three following methods in the order given:

Requiring analysis of each thought-group of the English sentence before translation into Latin.

Assigning English sentences to be translated into Latin in class after previously assigning for outside study the vocabulary and syntax involved.

Assigning English sentences to be translated into Latin outside the class.

We believe that at present too much emphasis is placed on questions in formal syntax in connection with the Latin text being read and that the common practice of asking such questions *after* the translation of the passage has been given is especially open to objection. This form of drill on syntactical principles distracts the attention of the pupil from the thought of the passage he is reading, the passage which it is at that time his main business to comprehend and interpret. Questions of syntax should be asked after interpretation or translation only for the purpose of clearing up difficulties or correcting errors remaining after the passage has been read.

We believe that no improvement proposed in this report is more imperative than elimination of the excessive attention

³⁷ See Part II, Chapter III, Section 2.

now commonly given to formal syntactical analysis especially when this analysis follows the translation. If the thought of the passage has been correctly expressed in the translation, a syntactical analysis of the passage is a wholly gratuitous exercise and an unjustifiable interruption of the story. If, on the other hand, the thought of the passage has been incorrectly interpreted or translated as a result of the pupil's failure to understand syntactical relations, it is the function of the teacher to have anticipated and removed the difficulty by preliminary questions or by encouraging the pupil in advance to ask questions in regard to his own difficulties.

A majority of teachers answering the general questionnaire believe that the practice of asking questions on syntax is effective in fixing grammatical principles and pupils filling out the question blank on content and method indicate that this is one of the most frequently occurring types of class-room question. We have already expressed the belief that the emphasis now placed upon this exercise is due in large measure to a general belief in its efficacy in training pupils in formal logical analysis, the value of which at this early stage is too doubtful to warrant any training in formal syntactical analysis not justified on other grounds.

We therefore recommend that all questions in syntax asked in connection with the comprehension or translation of Latin passages shall be functional in character, designed to clarify *in advance* ideas about which confusion might be anticipated and that as far as possible these questions be based upon indications, already met in the passage being read, as to what ideas are presumably going to follow.

It is generally agreed that the best results of class-room instruction will be secured when the pupil's interest is most keenly aroused. The Grise and Swan studies show that the present emphasis upon formal syntax accounts in some measure for the dislike which many pupils feel for Latin, since

the discrepancy there shown between the proportion of pupils who state that various types of questions occur very frequently in class recitation and the proportion of pupils who like the various types of questions is greater in the case of questions on formal syntax than in any other type of question.

LATIN SYNTAX AND CERTAIN ULTIMATE OBJECTIVES

We believe that the illustrative use of English grammar in the teaching of Latin grammar provides, as in the analogous treatment of vocabulary, favorable opportunities for attaining those ultimate objectives which depend upon the application of facts and processes learned in the study of Latin to fields other than Latin and for developing an elementary knowledge of general language structure. Eighty-nine per cent of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire express the opinion that association with English grammar should furnish one basis for developing Latin syntactical principles and 87% of the teachers express the opinion that pupils should be trained to apply to English the grammatical principles learned in Latin.

We therefore recommend, first, that a definite and strictly limited amount of specific material involving the application of Latin grammar to English be included in the regular classroom work and in the outside preparation of lessons, and, second, that this material be of two general types: (1) material illustrating those grammatical principles which are common to Latin and English³⁸ and (2) problems involving the application of grammatical principles learned in Latin to the correction of common grammatical errors in English.

We further recommend that Latin teachers should make every possible effort to secure the coöperation of teachers of

³⁸ For a list of grammatical principles common to Latin and English see Part II, Appendix E.

English in correlating the work in Latin and English grammar. Such correlation provides an excellent means of preventing the pupil from regarding the study of Latin as an isolated activity. As a further means of promoting such correlation we suggest that Latin teachers take the initiative in promoting the adoption and use of a uniform grammatical terminology in all the language classes of their own schools.³⁹ The great majority of the teachers filling out the general questionnaire believe such action to be desirable.

We recommend that Latin pupils who are studying other foreign languages be given brief and simple summaries of the principal syntactical elements common to the languages involved; that sufficient training be given these pupils in making the necessary identifications in actual practice to enable them to continue the practice independently; and that brief but systematic references to particular opportunities for making such connections should be made throughout the Latin course. Seventy-seven per cent of the teachers advise training pupils

³⁹ "The languages studied in our schools are the descendants of the same language, the 'parent speech' once spoken by the ancestors of almost all the scholars; and, while the words of that parent speech have largely changed their forms and differ in the languages spoken today, the ways in which they are used have changed relatively little. The relations expressed, for instance, by the terms subject, predicate, direct object, indirect object, purpose, result, cause, have not changed at all; it is only our ways of speaking about these relations that differ. And if the student, having learned the conception and the name of any of these in any language, found the same conception set forth by the same name in any other language that he might study, a sense of law and order would succeed the present sense of arbitrariness and in many minds a feeling of interest would succeed the feeling of indifference or distaste.

"Further, the adoption of a system of identical nomenclature for identical phenomena in all the languages of our family which the student may take up, with its natural accompaniment of differing nomenclature at the points where the phenomena differ, would have the effect of making these differences stand out more sharply in his mind." From the Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature of the National Education Association, (1913), pp. vi, vii.

to apply consciously grammatical principles learned in Latin to the Romance languages and to German.

We recommend that teachers who regard as valid the ultimate objectives which depend for their attainment upon a knowledge of Latin syntax should hold their pupils responsible for endeavoring to attain these objectives and should regularly include in the tests and examinations given their pupils questions on these phases of Latin study. The Pound-Helle study⁴⁰ shows that no paper contained a question designed to test the pupil's ability to work out a new syntactical problem independently, that no paper contained a question designed to test the pupil's ability to apply his knowledge of Latin syntax to a solution of grammatical problems in English or a modern foreign language, and that no paper contained a question testing the pupil's knowledge of the principles of general language structure.

The contacts which Latin grammar affords with the other linguistic experiences of the pupils are so numerous, close and obvious as to make this phase of the study of Latin the natural agency for initial development of the general habit of identifying similar elements in different situations which we believe is a very important objective of the study of Latin.

D. FORMS

The methods to be employed in the teaching of Latin forms should be such as to develop in the pupil correct habits of independent study, to contribute both to the mastery of Latin forms and to the attainment of the ultimate objectives which teachers consider valid for their pupils, to involve the use of association and apperception, to enlist the interest of the pupils, and to encourage the application of the facts and processes acquired in the study of Latin to the activities of life outside the Latin class.

⁴⁰ See Part II, Chapter IV, Section 13.

We recommend that the learning of inflectional forms be closely associated with practice in the use of those forms.⁴¹ As soon as the most important functions of the case forms, singular and plural, have been recognized in context a sufficient number of times to warrant confidence that grammatical ideas rather than formal English equivalents have become associated with the endings, paradigms should be drawn up and memorized. An analogous treatment of the verb is recommended.

The emphasis which should be attached to the immediately usable functional instances of inflection in the initial stages of the work should be maintained throughout the course. The problem confronting the pupil in reading Latin according to the methods recommended involves the prompt recognition of the several possibilities of a given form and the contemporaneous recognition of all the grammatical ideas which up to that time the pupil has actually learned to associate with that form. It is more important in our judgment that a pupil should be able, for example, to recognize promptly the four possibilities of form and idea contained in a first declensional word ending in *-ae* than to be able formally to decline the word. We therefore urge that initial drill on forms should be functional in character and that this drill should be continued until the significance of an individual form and the associated

⁴¹ "From the outset an accurate knowledge of the inflectional forms used should be insisted upon. But these forms should not be learned in parrot fashion quite apart from their uses. The formal paradigms should follow, not precede, the actual use of the forms in translation. A large number of easy oral and, later, written exercises bearing upon and illuminating the story or fable which is read should fix these forms and the necessary syntax firmly in mind. Words, forms, and principles of syntax should be learned because needed and when needed in the reading of the text." W. E. Foster in "The Preliminary Statement of the Chairman of the Committee on Ancient Languages of the Commission of the National Education Association for the Reorganization of Secondary Education," United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 41 (1913), p. 37.

ideas suggest themselves promptly upon the appearance of that form. A premature memorization of paradigms sets up habits and associations entirely inconsistent with the process which consists of taking in the thought of a Latin sentence as it develops.⁴² If, however, pupils first acquire through repeated experience the habit of associating the appropriate grammatical idea or ideas with each of the case-forms as they are met, the learning of paradigms should then be regarded as a convenient and most valuable method of consolidating and organizing the knowledge thus gained.

Some forms, such as the vocative and imperative, will be most effectively learned through oral work. The oral method, however, is one which the pupils can be expected to use for themselves only in the review of forms already learned.

The similarities of inflectional endings in the various declensions and conjugations should be emphasized in the initial stages of the work and their differences taken up later. For example, pupils should be able to recognize the accusative singular of a masculine or feminine noun irrespective of the particular declension to which it may belong and to recognize the present and imperfect tenses of all regular conjugations before the four conjugations have been taken up separately.

We recommend that when the organization of declensions and conjugations is taken up, attention should be given to the general inflectional systems underlying them. This is recommended not only because of the assistance which such a sys-

⁴² "Each fundamental fact of language should be presented in the normal way in which it functions in the language. Let us take for an illustration declension and conjugation. The old-fashioned way of memorizing a tense person after person and a declension case after case in a parrot-like fashion is pedagogically wrong, because it creates wrong associations of ideas and does not correspond to the way a verb or a noun ever occurs in a sentence." E. B. de Sauzé in "Problems of First-Year Latin," *The Classical Journal*, XVI (March, 1921), pp. 341-342.

tematic organization will afford in combining and retaining a knowledge of the forms but also because of the value which such an emphasis has in giving the pupils a conception of the genius of the Romans for order and system as embodied in their language.

We believe that no single acquirement will contribute more to the pupil's progressive development of power to read Latin than a thorough functional knowledge of inflectional forms and we recommend the adoption of every possible means to secure a thorough mastery of the inflectional forms assigned to the work of each semester. We especially urge the use of oral and written Latin as a very valuable means to this end. The teachers filling out the general questionnaire indicate their belief that one of the chief values of the writing of Latin is the aid it gives in the mastery of inflectional forms.

We urge, however, that the practice of asking formal questions on inflections while pupils are attempting to comprehend or to translate the thought of a Latin passage should be reduced to the very lowest minimum. Sixty-eight per cent of the pupils filling out the question blank on content and method indicate that one of the things they were most frequently asked to do during the class recitation was to inflect a noun or a verb. Ninety-seven per cent state that these questions are most commonly asked in connection with the translation of the passage upon which the questions were based, and 96% state that these questions were commonly asked after or during the translation. If questions on inflectional forms are asked after translation, it should be only for the purpose of correcting errors, and the experienced teacher may eliminate the need for most of such questions by asking before translation appropriate functional questions which will make clearer to the pupils the intimate relation of forms and syntax to the expression and comprehension of thought.

Teachers and authors of text-books have recently come to recognize the opportunities afforded by the relationship of English to Latin for associating new Latin words with familiar English derivatives. The opportunities afforded for the use of analogous associations in the learning of forms have been recognized in only a small number of text-books. We recommend that the resources of English already familiar to the pupils should be more fully used for the purpose of teaching Latin forms, for the complementary purpose of helping in the interpretation of English derivatives, and for the still larger purpose of enabling pupils to appreciate the close historical relationship between English and Latin. The resources of English available for making such associations should be systematically prepared for use in connection with the teaching of Latin inflections. Many inflectional forms are preserved in commonly occurring Anglicised Latin words and phrases.⁴³ Very many nouns of the third declension have familiar English derivatives which will provide the pupil with the Latin stems.⁴⁴ Four-fifths of the verbs of the first conjugation important enough to be set for the pupil's mastery have English derivatives from their last principal parts which indicate the conjugation, and most of the important verbs in the other conjugations have English derivatives which assist in the learning of their last principal parts.⁴⁵ Comparative endings of adjectives are preserved in many English words and practically all the Latin adjectives whose comparisons are irregular have English derivations throwing light upon the Latin form of each degree.⁴⁶ We also recommend that pu-

⁴³ For example, *alumnus*, *alumni*, *formula*, *formulae*, *memorandum*, *memoranda*, *indices*, *arbor vitae*, *Anno Domini*, *in memoriam*, *vim*, *via*, *ab origine*, *bona fide*, *omnibus*, *rebus*, *recipe*.

⁴⁴ For example, *miles* (milit-ary), *custos* (custod-y), *iter* (itiner-ary).

⁴⁵ For example, *voco* (vocat-ion), *mitto* (miss-ion), *video* (vis-ion).

⁴⁶ For example, *bonus* (boon), *melior* (amelior-ate), *optimus* (optim-ist).

pils should be expected on their own initiative to solve problems in Latin forms by associating them with cognate or derived forms in English.⁴⁷ Teachers filling out the general questionnaire indicate their belief that the learning of new forms by either or both of these methods contributes more effectively to the attainment of the disciplinary objectives than does the memorization of complete paradigms.

Among the most important objectives in the teaching of Latin already discussed is the development of the generalized habit of recognizing identical elements in different situations. It is clear that the value of this habit depends upon the extent to which it can be made to operate in fields in which the identity of the common elements is not immediately obvious. The relation existing between Latin and English is most easily seen in the field of syntax and the establishment of associations in this field constitutes the first natural step in developing the general habit of seeing identical elements in different situations. In the case of vocabulary the relationship is in general less easily obvious, being obscured by differences in pronunciation and in spelling. The opportunity of finding things below the surface which this relationship affords for developing the general habit of identifying common elements in different situations is therefore correspondingly greater than in the case of syntax.

Section 6. The Direct Method

The oral work often suggested in the foregoing pages should not be confused with the so-called Direct Method of teaching. This method as applied to the teaching of Latin is the same as that now applied so extensively to the teaching of the modern languages and has approximately the same aims. Its characteristic features are:

⁴⁷ For a list of English derivatives which will assist in the learning of Latin declensions, conjugations and comparisons see Part II, Appendix F.

1. The employment of Latin from the beginning as the customary, though not exclusive, language of the class room.
2. The acquisition of vocabulary, forms and syntax almost entirely by induction in oral drill based upon the pupil's activity, pictures, models, and the like.
3. The subordination of reading to speaking throughout and, when the reading stage is reached, the testing of knowledge or comprehension, not by translation but by questions in Latin concerning the content of the passage read.
4. The omission of translation entirely until the pupils are well advanced in their power to read and understand Latin as Latin, and the use of translation as an exercise in the artistic use of English.

The Direct Method is not new, so far as its aims and chief characteristics are concerned, for ever since Latin began to spread into the provinces of the Roman Empire there were schools to teach provincial children to speak Latin. This was also true of the period of the Revival of Learning and later. The gradual disuse of Latin as a means of communication between educated men is responsible for the change in methods to those in existence today. But there have always been enthusiastic spirits who have believed in and trained their pupils in the oral use of Latin. Their efforts have usually been formulated into systems bearing their names. The present Direct Method movement differs from these attempts in that it is the work of a school rather than of an individual and has developed a large series of text-books as well as many collections of easy reading material and plays, many of which are included in the lists cited above.

It is undoubtedly true that remarkable results have often been obtained by experienced teachers working with the Direct Method under favorable conditions. Nevertheless we do not recommend that this method be adopted for general use because

1. It requires teachers trained specifically in this method, with adequate experience to enable them to avoid the dangers inherent in this method. Such training is not now available to any extent in this country.
2. Inasmuch as the essential feature of this method is individual drill, it can be profitably used only where classes are comparatively small. It is accordingly not applicable to large systems or where there are large classes.
3. Owing to the slow rate of progress in the earlier stages, the pupils in such classes cannot be transferred to other classes in the same school unless all the Latin teachers use the Direct Method, nor to other schools in the same system unless the system follows this method. Under present conditions such homogeneity is unattainable.
4. In the hands of inexperienced or ignorant teachers the attempted use of this method has been found to result in great waste of time with extremely poor results, a glib and showy response on the part of pupils and an alert interest in the class room often veiling a serious lack of exact knowledge and substantial progress.
5. The limitation of the aims of the Direct Method renders the attainment of many desirable objectives largely if not wholly impossible.

While, therefore, not recommending the employment of this method throughout, we regard it as of high value in the hands of skilled teachers in the earlier stages of instruction, particularly in the junior high school period.

CHAPTER VI

COMPARATIVE RECORDS OF CLASSICAL AND NON-CLASSICAL PUPILS

Section 1. Introduction

THUS far we have been concerned largely with presenting and interpreting the ascertained facts, favorable and unfavorable, regarding the present attainments of Latin pupils as related to the character and effect of the Latin teaching and also with proposals for improving the teaching. In various places in Chapter III, however, definite experimental evidence was produced which shows that the Latin pupils tested, when compared with the non-Latin pupils of the same initial ability taking the same tests, usually show better progress in certain phases of certain other secondary school studies. This raises the larger question as to whether or not this result occurs in all the subjects of the secondary school course. But the time and means at our command and the many complexities of the problem have made it impossible for us to devise and apply specific scientific tests and measurements to all the subjects.

We are able, however, to present a large body of dependable evidence as to the comparative records of classical and non-classical pupils in the leading subjects of the secondary school course which are offered for college admission. This evidence has been obtained from the records of the College Entrance Examination Board and from other sources. It extends and confirms the conclusions drawn from the results of the tests and measurements presented in Chapter III.

Over a ten-year period, including all candidates for college entrance from 1914 to 1923 inclusive, Latin leads all subjects

except Greek and French in the records made in the examinations of the College Entrance Examination Board. Greek easily ranks first and Latin, with a much larger number of candidates examined, is behind French by only a fraction of one per cent. Next highest in rank come physics, chemistry and mathematics, close together, and lowest in rank come German, English and history.

Moreover, an analysis of the records made by 10,000 College Board candidates in nine leading college preparatory studies show that the Latin students not only do better than the non-Latin students in all subjects outside of Latin and Greek, but also that with a single exception, which is probably easily explainable, the records in all these non-classical subjects go higher as the amount of Latin studied is greater. The margin of superiority of the Latin group of students as a whole is about 13%. Several methods of attempting to ascertain the difference in initial ability between Latin and non-Latin college preparatory pupils also seem to show that only about one-tenth of the 13% superiority of the Latin students at the end of the secondary course is to be attributed to this factor, and that nine-tenths of the superiority is due to something gained from the study of Latin itself. In other words, so far as measured by standing in the College Board examinations, a Latin student seems to gain during the secondary course more than 10% over the non-Latin student of the same initial ability.

Section 2. Certain College Board Records over a Ten-Year Period

Table I at the end of this chapter gives a summary of the College Board examination records for the ten years 1914-1923 in the nine subjects in which, aside from Greek, there was the largest number of candidates during this period. In the first part of the table the subjects are arranged according to

the percentage of all candidates in this decade who obtained a standing of 60% or over. The second part of the table gives the same information in another form, combining the nine subjects into two groups, Latin and Greek in one and the other seven in the other. The results recorded in this table clearly indicate that whatever faults exist in the teaching of Latin and Greek, they exist to a markedly less degree in the teaching of Latin and Greek than in the teaching of other subjects.

*Section 3. An Analysis of the College Board Records
of 10,000 Students*

Table II at the end of this chapter shows the average marks received in subjects other than the classical languages by 10,000 College Board candidates, arranged in groups according to the amount of Latin studied in the secondary school. This number includes all the "old plan" final candidates for a group of ten colleges for the years 1922, 1921 and 1920, and enough from 1919, taken alphabetically, to complete the 10,000.

It will be noticed in this table that, with a single exception affecting one year in one subject, the ratings in each subject go higher as the amount of Latin studied is greater. This exception is due to the fact that the three-year Latin group makes a slightly better record in science than the four-year Latin group makes. We believe this is accounted for by the probable presence among the 10,000 candidates of a considerable number of students from some of the leading schools of the country who dropped Latin at the end of the third year and took science in its place in preparation for one of the leading eastern universities. This group may have been large enough and its scholarship high enough above the general average of the 10,000 to account for the one slight exception to the general trend of the table.

Table III gives the facts of Table II in a form which shows by percentages the superiority in each subject of each of the three Latin groups (four-year, three-year, two-year) and the average superiority of the three Latin groups over the non-Latin group. It will be seen, for example, that the four-year Latin group shows a superiority in English of 21.21% over the non-Latin group, the three-year Latin group a superiority in English of 13.60%, the two-year Latin group a superiority in English of 4.52%, and so on throughout the list. The average superiority of the three Latin groups in all subjects is 13.18%.

Section 4. Extent to Which the Superiority of These Latin Students is Due to the Study of Latin

The figures in Table II and Table III at once bring up the fundamental question as to how much of this superiority of Latin over non-Latin students is due to difference in initial ability and how much, if any, to something derived from the study of Latin. Several studies have been made of the difference in initial ability between Latin and non-Latin first-year secondary pupils.¹ These studies tend to show that while the difference is considerable, it is not so great as has been generally supposed. So far as we have been able to learn, however, all these studies have included non-college preparatory non-Latin pupils, which makes the results inconclusive in this particular connection. Two studies,² based on a rather small number of instances, seem to indicate that the difference in general intelligence between Latin and non-Latin college

¹ See E. I. Newcomb, "A Comparison of Latin and Non-Latin Groups in High School," *Teachers College Record*, XXIII (November, 1922), pp. 412-422.

² T. J. Kirby, "Latin as a Preparation for French," *School and Society* XVIII (November 10, 1923), pp. 563-569, and L. E. Cole, "Latin as a Preparation for College French and Spanish," *School and Society*, XIX (May 24, 1924) pp. 618-622.

freshmen at entrance is less than the difference in general intelligence between Latin and non-Latin first-year pupils in secondary schools. Further studies of this particular question on a more extensive basis are needed before general conclusions can be drawn with certainty.

After consultation with several authorities in the field of educational measurement, the following methods of obtaining additional evidence were therefore adopted:

1. From 20 secondary schools of different types and sizes in different parts of the country the final marks in first-year English and mathematics were obtained—these being the two subjects common to the first year—of all pupils who afterward entered college from these schools in the years 1919-1922. The total number of such students was slightly in excess of 2,100. Many of them, probably the majority, were included in the 10,000 College Board candidates of Table II. These 2,100 students were arranged in Latin and non-Latin groups. The marks for each group were averaged, with the following result:

SUPERIORITY OF LATIN OVER NON-LATIN COLLEGE PREPARATORY

PUPILS IN ENGLISH AND MATHEMATICS COMBINED

Measured at the end of the fourth year of the secondary course by the College Board examination, as indicated by Table III	14.17%
Measured at the end of the first year of the secondary course by random sampling, as described above	2.35%
Gain in three years apparently due to the study of Latin for part or all of the time	<hr/> 11.82%

In other words, judged on this basis, 16.6%, or one-sixth of the superiority of the Latin over the non-Latin group in English and mathematics at the end of the secondary course, is due to difference in ability as shown at the end of the first year, and 83.4%, or five-sixths, is due to something which these pupils obtained from the study of Latin. If the difference in ability could have been tested at the beginning of the first year instead of at the end of it, when the members of the

Latin group already had one year of Latin, there seems to be reason to believe that the first of these two percentages would be smaller and the second larger. This same point should be kept in mind in connection with the method next to be described.

2. The subjects common to the first year in the New York Regents' examinations are biology and algebra. Those common to the fourth year are English and history. A study was made of the marks received by 75 "pairs" of fourth-year students in the English and history examinations of June, 1923. The two students in each pair came from the same school and received the same marks in biology and algebra (averaged) in the examinations of June, 1920. One student in each pair studied Latin from two to four years in the secondary course and the other studied no Latin.

It was found that in 5 pairs there was no appreciable difference between the two students in their standing in the fourth-year English and history examinations (averaged), that in 10 pairs the non-Latin student and in 60 pairs the Latin student had the better record. The average superiority of the Latin members of the entire 75 pairs was 10.44%.

It will be seen that in this case the difference in initial ability, as existing at the end of the first year, has already supposedly been eliminated by the pairing method. This difference may be roughly estimated as 1.60%, the difference between 10.44% and the 12.04% superiority of the Latin group in English and history combined as shown in Table III. This may be stated in the following form:

SUPERIORITY OF LATIN OVER NON-LATIN COLLEGE PREPARATORY
PUPILS IN ENGLISH AND HISTORY COMBINED

Measured at the end of the fourth year of the secondary course by the College Board examinations, as indicated by Table III	12.04%
Estimated at the end of the first year, in the manner just described	1.60%
Gain in three years apparently due to the study of Latin for part or all of the time	10.44%

Judged on this basis, 13.3% of the superiority of the Latin over the non-Latin group in English and history at the end of the secondary course appears to be due to difference in ability as shown at the end of the first year, and 86.7% appears to be due to something derived from the study of Latin.

3. An effort was next made to compare Latin and non-Latin college preparatory groups in the first year of the secondary school by means of intelligence quotients. It was soon discovered that very few data of this kind are yet available. This is apparently for two reasons: that in most schools there is no clear differentiation in the first year between the two groups mentioned or between them and the rest of the class, and that intelligence tests have been given in very few schools long enough for the school records to show the results of the first-year tests of students who have already entered college. In other words, such students cannot be traced back as was done in the random sampling described in 1. above.

The records of about 500 students were obtained, however, from different types of schools. It was found that the median intelligence quotient of the non-Latin college preparatory group at the beginning of the first year was almost identical with that of the Latin group. The small number of students involved probably makes the study of comparatively little value by itself, but it does tend to bear out the conclusions drawn from 1. and 2. Its results may be stated thus:

SUPERIORITY OF LATIN OVER NON-LATIN COLLEGE PREPARATORY
PUPILS FOR ALL COLLEGE PREPARATORY SUBJECTS COMBINED

Measured at the end of the fourth year of the secondary course by the College Board examinations, as indicated by Table III	13.18%
Measured at the beginning of the first year by intelligence quotients	0.00
Gain in four years apparently due to the study of Latin for all or part of the time	13.18%

Judged on this basis, 100%, or the entire superiority of this Latin group in all subjects at the end of the fourth year

of the secondary course, seems to be due to the study of Latin. The average of this total superiority with the corresponding percentages under 1. and 2. is 90%. That is, assuming the validity of the three methods described above, something connected with the study of Latin is itself responsible for 90% of the superiority of the various Latin groups indicated in Table III.

The conclusions reached in the foregoing discussion of the methods of eliminating the difference in initial ability between the Latin and non-Latin college preparatory groups are summarized in Tables IV-VI at the end of this chapter.

The facts given in this section are not put forward as constituting technical proof or final demonstration of the effect of the study of Latin. But we believe that, taken as a whole, these converging indications, combined with other evidence contained in this Report, do go far to show that, aside from its direct and cultural values, Latin does something for those who study it which gives them in other fields of mental effort a margin of advantage that may fairly be called substantial. In fact, it looks as if the "formal disciplinarians" of other days, even when wrong in their premises, were right in many of their conclusions as to the disciplinary values of Latin (and Greek) and as to the extent to which these values may help in the study of other subjects.

These disciplinary values are discussed fully earlier in this Report. We believe that such values account for the greater part of the facts brought out in this section, and that under proper conditions they are not only capable of transfer to other academic activities, but will manifest themselves in the professions, in business life and in other callings generally.

It may be that one of the most important of these indirect transferable values—possibly the most important aside from the ability to think more accurately in abstract situations and then to express one's thoughts clearly—is that which has been described by Professor Stephen S. Colvin as "the mental

challenge that comes to those of ability and earnest purpose in the attempt to master a subject worthy of their mettle and through this challenge and the meeting of it the development of further ability and further purpose to master other difficulties."

TABLE I

Results of College Board (Old Plan) Examinations of all candidates for ten successive years, 1914-1923, in the nine leading subjects

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Number of Books</i>	<i>Percentage of Books Rated 60 to 100</i>
Greek	7,141	70.2
French	58,197	61.4
Latin	89,243	61.0
Physics	19,244	60.2
Chemistry	12,615	58.1
Mathematics	127,153	57.5
German	21,545	53.8
English	65,110	48.2
History	47,930	43.2
Total	448,178	56.0

Same data, with subjects arranged in two groups

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>Number of Books</i>	<i>Percentage of Books Rated 60 to 100</i>
Greek and Latin	96,384	61.7
French, Physics, Chemistry	351,794	54.4
Mathematics, German		
English, History		
Total	448,178	56.0

Average margin of superiority for Greek and Latin pupils is 7.3 points = 13.4%
($7.3 \div 54.4$)

NOTE: Spanish is not included in this table because of the small number taking the college entrance examinations in this subject in the earlier part of the decade 1914-1923.

TABLE II

Average marks received in subjects other than Latin by 10,000 College Board candidates, arranged in groups according to the amount of Latin which they studied in the secondary school. (See page 238).

PUPILS WITH	ENGLISH	HISTORY	MATHEMATICS	SCIENCE	MODERN LANGUAGES	ALL SUBJECTS
4 years Latin	62.76	58.01	64.25	63.08	65.83	63.29
3 years Latin	58.82	57.26	63.57	64.12	63.55	61.95
2 years Latin	54.12	53.49	62.04	59.99	57.88	58.45
No Latin	51.78	50.69	54.92	57.64	54.60	54.10

TABLE III

The facts of Table II arranged to show the percentage of superiority of each of the three Latin groups—and the average of the three—over the non-Latin group.

PUPILS WITH	ENGLISH	HISTORY	MATHEMATICS	SCIENCE	MODERN LANGUAGES	ALL SUBJECTS
4 years Latin	21.21	14.44	16.99	9.44	20.57	16.99
3 years Latin	13.60	12.96	15.75	11.24	16.39	14.51
2 years Latin	4.52	5.52	12.96	4.08	6.01	8.04
Average of above	13.11	10.97	15.23	8.25	14.32	13.18

NOTE: The percentages in this table were obtained as follows. According to Table II the four-year Latin group, for example, obtained a rating of 62.76 in English and the non-Latin group a rating of 51.78. $62.76 \div 51.78 = 1.2121$, a percentage of superiority for the former of 21.21.

TABLE IV

A

Percentage of superiority of Latin over non-Latin college preparatory groups at the end of the secondary course, as indicated by Table III.

In English-Mathematics	14.17
In English-History	12.04
In all college preparatory subjects	13.18
Average	13.13

B

Percentage of superiority of Latin over non-Latin college preparatory groups in the first year of the secondary course, as indicated by the following results.

Random selection (English-Mathematics)	2.35
Regents records (English-History)	1.60
Intelligence quotient (All subjects)	0.00
Average	1.32

C

Percentage of superiority of Latin over non-Latin college preparatory groups at the end of the secondary course apparently due to the study of Latin, as indicated by subtracting B from A, thus endeavoring to eliminate differences in initial ability.

In English-Mathematics	11.82
In English-History	10.44
In all college preparatory subjects	13.18
Average	11.81

TABLE V

Percentage of total superiority of Latin group apparently due to the study of Latin and not to difference in initial ability, as indicated by $C \div A$, Table IV.

In English-Mathematics	83.40
In English-History	86.72
In all college preparatory subjects	100.00
Average	<u>90.00</u>

TABLE VI

The figures of Table III multiplied by 90% (as indicated in Table V) to show the percentage of superiority of each of the three Latin groups—and the average of the three—over the non-Latin group after the difference in initial ability has been eliminated by the methods indicated in Table IV, leaving as the only factor the effect of the study of Latin.

PUPILS WITH	ENGLISH HISTORY MATHEMATICS SCIENCE MODERN ALL LANGUAGES SUBJECTS					
4 years Latin	19.09	12.99	15.29	8.49	18.51	15.29
3 years Latin	12.24	11.66	14.18	10.11	14.75	13.06
2 years Latin	4.07	4.99	11.36	3.67	5.41	7.24
Average of above	<u>11.80</u>	<u>9.87</u>	<u>13.71</u>	<u>7.43</u>	<u>12.88</u>	<u>11.86</u>

CHAPTER VII

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND COMMENTS

Section 1. The Situation in Latin

WE have now considered in detail the question of secondary school Latin and the positive and comparative results obtained under present conditions, and have also made definite proposals for improvement. The faults in our Latin teaching and in the present constitution of the course have been plainly exposed and examined. The objectives, content and method which we believe should set the standard for organizing and conducting the course have been fully studied and clearly defined.¹ A detailed comparison of present conditions with the standard proposed has led to the recommendations which have been made.

The primary intent of the recommendations is that Latin should be learned in order to be read and understood and that there should also be continuous and concurrent development of the larger enduring intellectual and historical values which are derivable from Latin. As the pupil's initial knowledge increases it should be collected and combined from time to time so that it may be held together and held more surely. Deductive inference and analytical practice, necessary as they are in their place, should come *after* each successive advance has been made by the pupil in learning the language by using it and should be employed not as the main but as the supplementary method of learning Latin in order to fix and test what has already been learned. The language should first be used and acquired to some extent and its structure should

¹ In Chapters III, IV and V.

then be gradually discovered with the help of that portion of the language already learned and used, instead of having the structure learned first and then used to discover the language.

We believe there is much good, mediocre and poor teaching of Latin. The existing faults, which have been searched out and exhibited without reserve or extenuation, are serious and widely diffused. They call for strong and prompt remedies, and Latin teachers ask that the remedies be found and applied. Yet the faults in teaching are not the sole element to be considered. A large part of the difficulty is due to the way in which the Latin course is now constituted. These two factors, the faults in teaching and the imperfect arrangement of the course, account for the difficulties in the situation. They react injuriously on each other and thus combine to aggravate the result. The two remedies needed, as may be inferred from the previous chapters, are a revision of the course on the basis proposed and a large supply of adequately trained teachers. Revision of the course, while necessary, will be insufficient without the vitalizing influence of finer teaching and of enough well trained teachers to diffuse this influence widely. Here as elsewhere the mechanical element is the lesser factor and the human element is the controlling factor which must be depended on to make the mechanism operate beneficially.

The reconstitution of the course must be effected within the close time limits allowed in the secondary schools. The amount of material now included in the course is too large to be well taught within the time available and is not as suitably adapted as it should be and might be to the successive stages of progress of the pupils. These two factors produce the present congestion and imperfect distribution of material and therefore continually operate to hinder the attainment of satisfactory results. A reduction in the amount of material will relieve the congestion and make it practicable to teach the lessened amount better. A modification and better distribu-

tion of the material will make it practicable to realize the aims of the course in much fuller measure. In this way the faults which inhere in the present constitution of the course can be eradicated.

The other and more important factor is the character of the teaching. We do not believe that improvement is attainable here on a large scale until really adequate provision is made for the training of Latin teachers. It is not made at the present time. Facilities for this purpose, though somewhat more numerous recently, are utterly insufficient to meet the general need for training prospective teachers and for improving the training of our present body of teachers as well. There is plenty of evidence to show that the demand for Latin teachers, especially for better trained Latin teachers, is increasing rapidly and that the supply is so inadequate as to warrant deep anxiety.² In many cases teachers with practically no training in Latin have had to be taken in order to do something to provide for the increasing number of Latin pupils. Existing centers for the training needed should therefore be enlarged at once and new centers should be established as soon as possible. In view of this situation there is little reason for surprise or for blaming Latin teachers. Taken as a whole they are doing fully as well as could be expected of any other set of teachers working under like conditions.

There is another side to the picture, which it is most gratifying to contemplate. Notwithstanding the imperfect results secured, whether due to the present constitution of the Latin course or to poor teaching or to any other cause, these results, though much below what can be and are attained under more favorable conditions, are better than in most other secondary school studies. In the records of the College Entrance Examination Board for the whole country for the ten consecu-

² "Results in Latin: First Two Years," University of the State of New York Bulletin, No. 773, January 1, 1923, p. 22.

tive years 1914-1923, Latin stands near the head of the list, practically tied with French for second place and surpassed by Greek, which ranks first. It has the highest average record among the four subjects which have the largest enrolment of pupils. We recognize that Latin pupils are of a somewhat higher initial ability than other pupils and that part of the result is due to this cause. There is positive evidence, however, that this initial superiority is less than has been generally supposed, that a large part of the result is presumably due to something derived from the study of Latin, that this part grows larger the longer Latin is studied, and that in so far as Latin and non-Latin pupils of admittedly equal initial ability have been tested experimentally in subjects outside of Latin, the Latin pupils usually make the better record.³

The very large enrolment of Latin pupils is both encouraging and discouraging. The recent rapid increase, following a sagging⁴ in Latin and also in English (and therefore in general enrolment) during the World War, is highly encouraging. Latin pupils are crowding, as never before, into our school courses. The number of pupils in Latin is now a little greater than the combined number of pupils enrolled in any or all other foreign languages. Never before in our history

³ See Chapters III and VI.

⁴ We have the figures for this sagging in the State of New York during the three years definitely affected by the World War (1917-18, 1918-19, 1919-20) and also for the enrolment in the years immediately preceding and following. The Latin enrolment had risen in 1916-17 to 85,770. In 1917-18 it fell to 75,160, in 1918-19 to 69,370 and in 1919-20 it rose a little to 71,907. In 1920-21 it increased to 82,076 and in 1921-22 to 93,303. There was little variation in Greek. In spite of the sagging, Latin retained throughout the war its position as the leading foreign language. French and Spanish gained heavily, though not for identical reasons, and German was reduced to a very small remnant. The situation in New York is in general accord with what is known of the situation throughout the country. See "Results in Latin: First Two Years," University of the State of New York Bulletin, No. 773, January 1, 1923, Table 2, p. 6.

has there been so good an opportunity for wide diffusion of the educational benefits of Latin. It should also be noted that Latin is the one most generally studied foreign language which may be offered for admission to college and that Latin and French, so closely related to each other, when taken together have four-fifths of the present total enrolment in all foreign languages.⁵

The less encouraging aspect of this huge Latin enrolment is that the supply of teachers, whether adequately or inadequately trained, is very insufficient and that small provision is being made for training Latin teachers. It is not too much to say that the future educational usefulness of Latin is largely dependent on securing this urgently needed supply. The present enrolment of Latin pupils will almost certainly show further increase soon, not from compulsion—since Latin is elective in most schools, so much so that it may usually be dropped at the end of any year at the pleasure of the pupil – but because there is an unforced growing demand for the study. Each added increase will bring new demands for more teachers and, above all, for more well trained teachers. The Latin pupils are coming in great and increasing numbers. Are we to have the teachers to teach them? And are we to have the well trained teachers needed? The opportunity is great and the need is imperative.

How is this indispensable supply of trained teachers to be secured? Here the intelligent coöperation of school and university authorities will be necessary. We believe it will be forthcoming. But this will not produce the desired result unless large expenditures are wisely made to put into effective operation the agencies which must organize and direct the training. A few of these agencies now exist. They should be strengthened and many new agencies should be promptly established.

⁵ See Table I in Appendix A, p. 269.

Yet there is something we can do of ourselves. As early as the last two years of the school course and throughout the college course teachers and professors should be on the watch for bright students with presumable aptitudes for teaching, who should be encouraged to look forward to the classical career and should be guided in their studies toward this end. We may thus discover in advance many promising teachers. Under existing conditions it is hardly in our power to do more.

The Latin and also the Greek enrolment in the colleges has recently increased. In the case of Greek part of the increase is due to the larger number of students in Greek beginners' courses given in college.

Section 2. Present State of Greek in the Schools

Time and means were not available for extending the investigation to Greek except in so far as needed for comparison with Latin in enrolment and in results at the end of the school course. The enrolment in Greek is so small as to cause deep concern, but the results in Greek are demonstrably and notably better than in any other subject⁶ in the academic secondary school course. How far this is due to ability of the pupils, to the quality of the teaching or to the nature of the subject, or to any combination of these factors, has not yet been determined by scientific measurement. On the basis of the experimentation in Latin it is reasonable to suppose that all three factors are involved and that while superior ability of the pupils will be one factor, the effect of the teaching and the nature of the study will also be found to contribute substantially to the total result. This view is strengthened by the fact that there is little complaint about the teaching of Greek and also by the fact that the school study of Greek ordinarily begins a year after the school study of Latin begins

⁶ See Chapter VI.

and is therefore in position to profit by whatever advantage may accrue to the pupil from having studied one classical language for a year before beginning the other. The two classical languages are so very intimately related as to make it almost certain that initial progress in one will help in beginning the other. The road to both is the same.

Those who know both Latin and Greek are practically, and perhaps without exception, unanimous in their judgment that while Greek is a much finer instrument of thought and expression than Latin, or indeed than any other foreign language, it is not to be expected that the number of Greek students will be nearly so great as the number of Latin students. But this does not and should not mean that the study of Greek is not to be strongly encouraged and fully provided for all who are fit to take it. If it is not a valuable school study, it should not be provided at all. If it is a valuable school study, as practically all scholars emphatically declare it is, then it should be made easily accessible to all who are qualified to take it.

In our public high schools, where fully nine-tenths of our secondary school pupils are to be found, Greek is ordinarily not provided at all.⁷ Even when provided it is usually left to

⁷ The attitude of most of our forty-eight State Superintendents of Education toward Greek is neutral (twenty-four) or unfavorable (sixteen). Only eight are positively favorable. See end of Chapter II.

Vernon M. Riegel, State Superintendent of Public Instruction for Ohio, in a circular of August 11, 1921, announcing that mathematics was no longer to be a requirement in any secondary school of Ohio, after stating that "all the mathematics for those who desire it that there was before" is still provided, closes with these interesting words: "The exceptions that occur need not concern us as much as the great body of young people who stumble along and drop out because they possess no aptitude for a subject such as mathematics or such as Latin, which, like algebra, was once on the required list. Greek, too, once knew the day when it was rated indispensable, but many have forgotten that it was ever taught in high schools."

take its forlorn chance in a scramble with easier studies of less intellectual power and of quick commercial use. In such circumstances the pupil not only is not encouraged to take Greek even when he is fit for it, but is practically prevented from taking it by being allured to easier so-called "useful" studies, which are offered him as presumably "just as good" as Greek. Cases are also known where administrative obstacles are placed in the way of forming Greek classes for capable pupils who want it. A good instance of the generally inequitable nature of the situation is found in the case of Spanish, a language for which satisfactory provision should be and is made. It is a much easier language than Greek and is being taught almost entirely for commercial use rather than for its educational worth. It is not only provided in thirty times as many public high schools as teach Greek,⁸ but is commonly accepted as equivalent to Greek for admission to college. This is an effective way to prevent students from offering Greek for college entrance. That many who want Greek cannot get it in school is also indicated by the recent marked increase in beginners' Greek courses in college,—work which properly belongs in school and not in college and which reduces the power of the colleges to go ahead with college work in Greek for all students taking Greek in college.

No study of non-utilitarian type, however excellent it may be, is given a fair chance in such circumstances. A like situation, though not so acute, appears also in the case of some other studies, as in the sciences. Immature pupils are left to judge matters wherein they have had no experience which would enable them to judge correctly. This bears harder on Greek than on any other school study, so that at the present time when Greek is rarely or never compulsory in school studies, ignorance of Greek often becomes compulsory. We

⁸ See Chapter II.

are not asking that pupils in our schools be compelled to study Greek, but we do ask that all who are fit for the study shall have the unhindered and really encouraging chance to take it. This good chance is not provided now. We believe it is the undeniable right of every capable American boy and girl, no matter how well or how poorly circumstanced in life, to have that chance. It is notorious that "the line of least resistance" is now being followed by crowds of students who seek the easier way through school and college. The least we can do in justice to those who are willing to take the uphill road of studious endeavor is to give them fully accessible opportunities, high encouragement and ample rewards. These are not given now, although the records of American education show that in studious endeavor and in excellence of results the students of Greek usually stand among the very best.

Section 3. Greek for Latin Teachers

The intimate relation of Latin to Greek has great importance in regard to the training of Latin teachers. The Latin teacher who does not know Greek has little knowledge of the immense enrichment of Latin which comes through Greek and is consequently shut off from full appreciation of Latin. Greek teachers know Latin, but only a minority of our Latin teachers have studied Greek. We therefore urge that all teachers of Latin should be trained to know Greek also and that full provision be made to ensure this result as soon as possible. It will give us better teachers of Latin and will also provide for the teaching of Greek in many places where for economic reasons a separate teacher cannot be allowed for each language. It will give better chances for starting new Greek classes under capable teachers. Some good teaching of Greek is now being done by self-sacrificing Latin teachers who have taken on this additional work without remuneration.

*Section 4. Combined Teaching of English, Latin
and Greek*

There is a larger aspect of the question. The intimate relation of English to Latin and of Latin to Greek offers valuable opportunities for teaching the three languages in much closer connection than is effected at present. Latin stands between the other two and is intimate with both. The three naturally belong together. In the French academic secondary schools, or *lycées*, French, Latin and Greek, *les trois langues classiques*, as the official statements name them, are regularly taught by one teacher.³ Thus the teacher of Latin and Greek knows how to teach French and the teacher of French knows how to teach Latin and Greek. Such a method unifies and clarifies the teaching and helps to explain the generally better attainments of French pupils in their native tongue and in the classics also.

While French is more closely interwoven with Latin than is English, the large amount of material common to English and Latin and the larger amount common to English and the two classical languages combined—much larger in either case than the amount common to English and any or all other foreign languages—show that the wider scope and clearer unity contemplated in the French plan should be favored in our schools to the largest degree which may be found practicable. If this is done, we may confidently expect that there will be less scattering and resultant waste in our teaching and that better progress will be made by our pupils.

³ "Dans toutes les classes l'enseignement du français, du latin et du grec est confié au même professeur." *Journal Officiel: Arrêté relatif aux Horaires et aux Programmes*, December 13, 1923. Also published in more convenient form by the Librairie Villet, Boulevard Saint-Germain, Paris, 1923.

*Section 5. Combined Teaching of Classical and
Modern Foreign Languages*

A similar comity in teaching should also be favored in respect to the modern foreign languages. The intimacy of French, Spanish and Latin is so close as to promise excellent results from coöperative or from combined teaching. A teacher who is qualified to teach French, Spanish and Latin has many advantages over a teacher of equal ability who is qualified to teach only one of these languages. This is also true, though in lesser degree, with respect to German. As in the case of English, coöperative or combined teaching of classical and modern languages may be expected to produce better results with the pupils and to extend the spirit of comradeship among teachers who have so many problems in common. There are probably nearly forty thousand teachers of foreign languages, classical and modern, in our secondary schools and a much larger number of teachers of English. The more the spirit of coöperation spreads among the teachers of all these languages, the more surely may we expect richer results in each language taught.

Section 6. The Six-Year Latin Course

In our four-year secondary schools the pupils enter at about fourteen and graduate at about eighteen years of age. It is not practicable or desirable to extend the school period later. School Latin must therefore be restricted to four years unless it is to begin earlier. So far as we know there is a general though not complete agreement among educational authorities that it would be much better to begin the study of Latin two years earlier. There are some opportunities now given to do so. It is to be desired that these opportunities be made more generally accessible. They already exist in many of

our junior high schools, in six-year classical schools and elsewhere. It is the universal practice in the school systems of other countries, even in the four-year courses of England and Germany as well as in the standard six-year, seven-year or nine-year courses of England, France, Germany and Italy.

Moreover, there are important reasons for making the course in Latin longer than four years in case it is begun earlier. By beginning two years earlier and continuing for six years the course can be more fully developed and thereby made more effective. It would also be completed within the upper age limit now reached by pupils completing the present four-year course. The study would then start at a time when pupils are much more responsive to sounds, words and sayings and when they also have the greatest pleasure in learning by the simple process of imitation. There will be a better chance to anticipate and obviate mistakes in their use of both English and Latin and to prepare them for reading easy Latin earlier. By beginning two years earlier and continuing the study for two years longer than in the present four-year course it will be practicable to develop more deeply rooted habits of accuracy and thoroughness, a larger reading in the authors, greater facility in the reading and broader appreciation of the literary and historical influences flowing from the subject. It will also furnish those who go on to college greater power to read college Latin with certainty and speed and thus the opportunity to gain a larger first-hand acquaintance with Latin literature.

In order to attain these results it is most important that the six-year course shall not be broken into two loosely connected or disjointed three-year units. Whether provided in two stages in junior and senior high schools or in any other way, it should be a continuous course for all who take it, no matter at what point they stop. Very many pupils would probably have to discontinue their study of Latin at the end

of three years. These pupils should have a good continuous course all the way they go and those who go farther should also have a good continuous course all the way they go. No irremovable antagonism between the interests of these two classes of pupils is involved. The way to arrange matters to the satisfaction of all concerned is to organize the six-year course in two cycles, the earlier three-year cycle being of a more general and the later three-year cycle of a more special nature, somewhat as is done in the new plan of study for the French *lycées*.¹⁰ We firmly believe that the danger of discontinuity and of consequent waste and dissatisfaction in a six-year Latin course can be completely obviated only by organizing it in two well connected stages. It is not difficult to do wherever there is a readiness to do it.

The value of longer continuity in leading secondary school studies is commonly admitted, though not always appreciated. It is sometimes erroneously supposed that each successive year of progress in a study is almost or altogether equal and is somewhat like piling blocks of the same size and shape one on top of the other. This overlooks the two facts that the pupil's maturity ordinarily increases each year and that the results coming from a fairly well taught study are cumulative, so that for both reasons each succeeding year is usually worth more than the year before it. Each added year thus represents the addition not of an equal but of a larger volume. It is not like the lengthening of a tube, but like the expansion of a cone,—each following year starting with a larger basal area. Such is the increase which may be expected in varying extent with any fairly good teaching, though not to any large extent with poor teaching. This cumulative gain obtained from a study is naturally less in subjects of descriptive and informational character than in subjects of highly

¹⁰ *Journal Officiel*, May 4, 1923, p. 4383. Also in the *Journal* for December 13, 1923, the *Arrêté relatif aux Horaires et aux Programmes*, p. 1.

organized character wherein the very definite structural connections are constantly offering opportunities for successively relating one part to another and thus for combining the whole subject in one view. The Latin language has a highly organized character and its literature forms a genetically developed whole. The opportunities for cumulative gain in the study of Latin are therefore very numerous and promising. It is evident that they will be greater in a six-year than in a four-year course and also greater than in the ratio of six to four. This consideration of course applies to Greek also and to all studies of highly organized nature.

Section 7. The Six-Year Secondary School

Six-year secondary schools exist here and there in our land, but the four-year school is the most usual type. It has done and is doing much good. It should not be weakened. We believe it can be made to do much more good by extending it downward. It is commonly believed by competent observers that four years do not give enough time for properly developing our secondary education. It does not begin soon enough and does not last long enough. And as it should not be prolonged later, the remedy is to begin earlier. To effect this transformation from a four-year to a six-year plan without injury to existing schools will, of course, require time, patience and wisdom. But we believe it can and should be effected.

Ours is the only important nation in the western civilized world which allows secondary education to begin so late and contents itself generally with only four years. This largely accounts for the undoubted fact, noted again and again by those who have studied the situation, that our boys and girls at the end of their secondary schooling are practically two years behind those who are of about the same age on finishing their secondary schooling in other leading countries. This is a great public loss.

The history of our schools shows that an important reason why our four-year public high schools have only four years is that our elementary schools were organized on an eight-year basis in mistaken conformity to the length of the Prussian *volkschulen*, which stood apart under the old regime as schools for the generality of children who were not to go on to further education. Moreover, it is now seen that eight years are not really necessary for our properly elementary schooling and that boys and girls are being kept back from taking the new start they need and often desire to take.

The three-year junior high schools are beginning to meet the emergency. The highly encouraging fact here is that these newer schools are trying to give many the chance they need to have. The two serious embarrassments in this new situation are the general lack of teachers trained to do secondary school work and the absence of satisfactory correlation between the three-year junior and the three-year senior high schools. They need to be treated as two parts of one harmonious plan, the earlier part of more general and the later part of more special character, and not to be disjoined from each other. The movement is spreading and it promises to lead to six-year secondary schooling all over the land. If the present imperfections are removed, as we believe they can be, the educational gains will be immense.

The chance for establishing generally a well planned six-year secondary school education therefore has a far larger significance than the proper development of Latin or of any other individual study. It presents the one available opportunity for putting our whole secondary academic education on a satisfactory basis. On an intelligently arranged six-year plan all secondary studies would have a far better chance for their proper development at the time when they should be developed and with the time needed to develop them. By shortening the period of elementary schooling from eight years to

six, thus subtracting the time now admittedly not used advantageously and not really needed, the opportunity would also be given to organize our elementary schools on clearly elementary lines. By the establishment of a longer and better secondary education, the pupils who go no farther than the secondary school will be better educated and the pupils who go on to colleges or other higher institutions will be better able to go ahead with their advanced studies. The colleges in turn will be relieved from the retarding and embarrassing task of teaching school studies in college and the way will thus be cleared for advances in college and university studies.

The secondary school and not the university is now the strategic center from which to attack the whole problem of reconstructing American education. England, France and Italy have already found this to be true in their educational reconstruction following the World War. The method for solving the whole problem is clear and it is most important that it shall be followed. If the principle of sufficient continuity in separate leading studies is consistently followed, it will naturally lead to adopting the correlative principle of coherence as regulative for arranging studies when taken together, whether concurrently or in sequence. If the two principles are followed steadily and clearly, the work of rationally organizing all our studies, both secondary and higher, will be well started on the way to complete accomplishment.

*Section 8. The Classics in England, France, Germany
and Italy Since the World War*

A full review of the fortunes of Latin and Greek in the secondary education of England, France and Germany for the last thirty years or more, including the changes made since the World War, will form a separate part of this investigation.¹¹

¹¹ Part III: *The Classics in England, France and Germany*. By Dr. I. L. Kandel, Teachers College, Columbia University.

In England the Education Act of 1921 provided a general plan for reconstruction after the war.¹² Secondary education is being widely extended and assisted by government grants. Wherever as many as two foreign languages are to be taught in these "grant-earning" schools, Latin is usually to be one of the two.¹³ Large provision is also made for Greek.¹⁴ The whole question of the classics in British education was thoroughly studied by the Prime Minister's Committee and the results of their inquiries are embodied in an elaborate and very able Report.¹⁵ The work of the Classical Association, begun long before the war, has also exerted a powerful salutary influence in shaping opinion and in helping to formulate the reconstruction. Taking all the various secondary schools, new and old, in one view, it is clear that better organization of the work is being developed, improved methods are coming into more general use, insistent emphasis is put on the better training of teachers and the classical education in British schools is being extended more widely than ever before. The coöperation of British labor leaders to this end has been especially notable.

The most momentous change is found in France, where the plan of 1902 for the *lycées* has been superseded by the new plan which went into effect in October, 1923. After twenty years of experiment in the other direction with varying programmes of study, classical, semi-classical and non-classical, and after prolonged discussion in view of conditions before, during and since the World War, France has decided that the classics are to be required in the *lycées* as an essential part of liberal education. M. Léon Bérard, Minister of Public Instruc-

¹² Education Act, 1921 (11 and 12, Geo. 5, Ch. 51). H. M. Stationery Office, Imperial House, Kingsway, London.

¹³ Statutory Rules and Orders, 1921, No. 1461, pp. 8, 14, 15. H. M. Stationery Office, London.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 14, 15.

¹⁵ *The Classics in Education*, 1921. H. M. Stationery Office, London.

tion, in his letter of May 3, 1923, to President Millerand states the main reason for this decision as follows: "Experience and not theory is what counts in this case. It is experience that shows the defects in a plan of studies. Those disciplines which it has tested and approved are the surest, even though they be the oldest."¹⁶

In promulgating the new plan M. Bérard had followed the lawful method of procedure. Nevertheless the public discussion, especially of the requirement of the classics, was so animated that the matter came up by interpellation in the Chamber of Deputies. The extended debate continued at successive sessions from May 8 to July 11, 1923, when the Chamber of Deputies voted by a large majority in favor of the new plan.¹⁷ The plan, thus confirmed, has gone into effect throughout France. The scientific, literary, professional and commercial forces of France, with some very notable exceptions, supported the plan and whatever opposition was shown to it in the Chamber of Deputies seemed in general to be political rather than educational.

¹⁶ *Journal Officiel*, May 4, 1923, p. 4380. This issue contains M. Bérard's letter and the complete text of the Decree of May 3, 1923. These two documents are given in English translation in "The New Establishment of the Classics in the Secondary Schools of France," published by the American Classical League, Princeton, New Jersey. The detailed programme of studies is given in the *Journal Officiel* for December 13, 1923, in the *Arrêté relatif aux Horaires et aux Programmes*. The literature of the subject in official publications and in the public press is very large. Specially valuable information is to be found in the issues during 1922 and 1923 of the *Bulletin Administratif du Ministère de l'Instruction Publique et des Beaux Arts*, Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, of the *Revue Universitaire*, Librairie Armand Colin, 103 Boulevard Saint-Michel, Paris, and of the *Journal Officiel de la République Française*, 31 Quai Voltaire, Paris.

¹⁷ A full report of the debate and vote is given in the *Bulletin Officiel de la Fédération Nationale des Professeurs de Lycée* for July-August-September, 1923, pp. 804-1206, Cahors, Imprimerie Typographique A. Coueslant. Consult also Léon Bérard: *Pour la Réforme Classique*, Librairie Armand Colin, 103 Boulevard Saint-Michel, Paris, 1923.

The new French plan has the extraordinary merit of selecting subjects of widely recognized educational importance and organizing them clearly, consistently and effectively in one system. Nothing is left at loose ends. Everything is based on the conception of the rational relation of the studies and their adaptability, severally and collectively, to the development of young students seeking a distinctively academic education. The mother tongue, the two classical languages, modern languages, mathematics, elementary sciences, physics and chemistry, with history and geography, constitute the impressive programme required of all, while in the later stage equal choice is given between the classical and modern sides. Moreover, it is to be noted that while provision is made for this one type of seven-year academic school in preparation for the universities, full provision is also made for four-year academic schools (the "advanced primary schools") and for technical schools. It is also a most notable fact that the entire new plan for secondary schools has been formed on a review of twenty years' experience in the other direction and of the effects of the war, after prolonged public discussion and with the sanction of the legislative authority of the nation. It is the most thorough piece of educational reconstruction done since the war in any land.

In Germany the situation is not so clear, although the main features are discernible.¹⁸ Two conflicting tendencies, with many inner variations, are at work. One is the intensely nationalistic spirit which, consciously or unconsciously following the educational leading of the former Kaiser Wilhelm II, would make the German language, literature and history the one center of organization for secondary school studies and would minimize or abolish the classics, some even going so

¹⁸ The statements here made regarding the German secondary schools are based mainly on Dr. I. L. Kandel's study: *The Classics in England, France and Germany*.

far as to favor exclusion of the modern foreign languages also. The other is the more cosmopolitan spirit, not untouched by just pride in Germany's memorable achievements in classical education and scholarship, which seeks to combine German and classical culture.

Matters are in a state of confused transition and it is very difficult to foresee the probable result. As yet no general reconstruction or revision has been made. The former nine-year school in its threefold form of *gymnasium*, *realgymnasium* and *realschule* still stands as before, but its strength has been impaired by the grave political, social and economic disturbances which have lessened the attendance of pupils and have borne heavily on the entire teaching staff of the nation.

The recently developed *reformgymnasium* and other schools of similar type offer a six-year course or less and include the classics in varying degree. It seems probable that such schools will increase at the expense of the nine-year schools, though the measure of this prospective increase is still very uncertain. Other changes in progress, due to actual or proposed schools, have not developed sufficiently to warrant any prediction as to the extent of their effects.

The only fairly safe general statements as to the situation in German secondary education seem to be those advanced by Dr. Kandel.¹⁹ These are that we have at present no evidence sufficient to show what has been the effect of conditions following the war upon any type of German secondary education and that the outcome is likely to be a compromise resulting in the development of a cosmopolitan academic school which will be more fully adaptable to emerging conditions and within which the classical tradition will continue with improved methods and with effective results.

There has not yet been opportunity to examine official re-

¹⁹ Part III: *The Classics in England, France and Germany*. By Dr. I. L. Kandel, Teachers College, Columbia University.

ports on the recent changes in the Italian academic secondary schools, or *licci*. Statements in the public press²⁰ describe in general the revision which has been made. The outstanding change in classical studies is the requirement of Latin in the seven-year course.

In England, France, Germany and Italy the secondary school, including within it the problem of school Latin and Greek, has engrossed educational attention since the war. The settling of the place and function of the classics has been a most influential factor in affecting the character of the plans which have been adopted. In each of these countries, except in Germany, a general reconstruction has been formulated and put into operation, and one important general result has been the improvement and strengthening of the classics as an integral part of academic secondary education.

²⁰ *The New York Evening Post*, July 14, 1923. *The New York Evening Mail*, January 22, 1924.

APPENDIX A

TABLES I-XIII ILLUSTRATING CHAPTER II

TABLE I

Estimated enrolment in foreign languages in the secondary schools of the continental United States in 1923-1924, including pupils in the 7th and 8th grades of junior high schools.

	LATIN	GREEK	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH	ITALIAN SWEDISH, HEBREW, ETC.
PUBLIC	815,000	3,000	465,000	28,000	305,000	
PRIVATE	125,000	8,000	75,000	12,000	25,000	
TOTAL	940,000	11,000	540,000	40,000	330,000	5,000

Latin 940,000. Other foreign languages combined 926,000.

TABLE II

Pupils studying foreign languages in public high schools in 1921-1922 (about 76% reporting) not including pupils in the 7th and 8th grades of junior high schools).

STATES	LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils
<i>Continental United States</i>	10,710	593,086	67	1,873	5,265	333,162	287	13,918	2,412	242,715
Alabama	110	5,570	54	1,716	14	1,702
Arizona	18	548	2	58	36	2,359
Arkansas	142	5,725	37	1,124	9	449
California	241	13,086	4	56	150	10,270	1	7	266	31,359
Colorado	122	6,879	53	1,819	3	26	88	5,072
Connecticut	64	7,632	1	34	68	10,527	9	631	24	2,789
Delaware	20	1,306	16	899	3	333
District of Columbia	7	3,175	8	2,939	4	144	9	2,446
Florida	83	4,347	28	907	25	1,333
Georgia	191	10,216	2	63	99	4,247	25	2,394
Idaho	73	2,061	25	505	2	80	38	1,139
Illinois	629	39,407	4	31	263	15,478	24	1,464	76	12,404
Indiana	619	36,442	1	40	135	8,326	42	4,221
Iowa	420	13,298	87	2,875	1	17	23	1,268
Kansas	425	12,658	74	1,742	1	18	102	4,102
Kentucky	264	11,820	1	1	101	3,221	3	103	28	1,574
Louisiana	103	3,684	74	3,284	8	1,070
Maine	154	5,052	1	4	163	7,912	2	62	13	456
Maryland	94	6,744	1	42	74	7,097	2	45	3	884
Massachusetts	238	24,724	13	506	251	37,730	64	3,084	94	10,793
Michigan	398	20,997	4	72	183	11,985	5	111	42	3,672
Minnesota	277	12,179	1	6	135	6,343	15	345	34	2,876

STATES	LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH	
	<i>Schools</i>	<i>Pupils</i>	<i>Schools</i>	<i>Pupils</i>	<i>Schools</i>	<i>Pupils</i>	<i>Schools</i>	<i>Pupils</i>	<i>Schools</i>	<i>Pupils</i>
Mississippi	121	4,067	48	882	13	290
Missouri	326	16,560	2	27	81	5,487	55	6,547
Montana	98	2,750	43	1,034	1	6	32	1,557
Nebraska	408	17,516	2	18	39	2,205	2	44	40	1,458
Nevada	11	157	7	206	13	641
New Hampshire	67	2,279	65	4,537	6	155	9	364
New Jersey	140	16,744	4	31	130	17,098	7	780	71	14,801
New Mexico	23	403	2	9	43	2,054
New York	657	64,404	13	375	591	55,624	48	4,131	177	44,621
North Carolina	316	16,758	262	7,900	6	62	22	874
North Dakota	167	3,659	76	1,575	15	179	10	299
Ohio	799	44,837	395	22,172	5	165	125	12,962
Oklahoma	255	10,285	1	13	52	1,555	132	6,609
Oregon	141	6,964	57	2,120	49	2,599
Pennsylvania	795	59,396	9	419	422	34,417	27	1,071	136	14,800
Rhode Island	18	2,530	2	130	19	3,161	3	147	11	908
South Carolina	115	6,088	73	1,968	2	49
South Dakota	162	4,558	54	1,271	1	33	14	449
Tennessee	186	7,913	102	2,732	18	801
Texas	320	17,682	30	1,675	3	64	240	21,088
Utah	11	511	15	998	11	987
Vermont	66	1,921	66	2,803	7	118
Virginia	338	14,981	218	6,609	24	2,192
Washington	170	7,505	1	5	127	6,729	3	28	102	7,608
West Virginia	118	4,519	103	2,968	30	1,374
Wisconsin	152	9,227	82	3,896	24	916	14	1,523
Wyoming	38	1,322	26	527	10	587

THE CLASSICAL INVESTIGATION

TABLE III

Pupils studying foreign languages in private high schools and academies in 1921-1922 (about 76% reporting).

STATES	LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils
<i>Continental United States</i>	1,801	95,461	255	6,105	1,334	58,319	297	5,725	823	21,119
Alabama	45	1,725	4	27	17	92	11	196
Arizona	4	100	1	2	2	50	1	4	5	145
Arkansas	8	207	4	15	1	6
California	82	3,279	6	81	63	1,891	7	113	67	1,936
Colorado	10	585	1	1	8	157	6	77
Connecticut	45	3,006	11	203	44	2,986	15	160	26	488
Delaware	5	296	1	19	5	236	2	21	2	32
District of Columbia	20	886	1	10	19	1,193	5	24	12	135
Florida	17	726	1	17	8	142	9	206
Georgia	37	1,625	6	95	21	893	2	13	8	198
Idaho	5	151	1	1	4	34	1	1	3	51
Illinois	85	5,542	7	157	67	2,282	19	356	43	1,039
Indiana	33	1,891	6	163	23	617	6	260	18	497
Iowa	85	2,710	1	41	20	459	6	174	12	181
Kansas	22	1,248	2	10	13	181	8	267	15	227
Kentucky	54	2,671	5	32	33	663	6	91	15	293
Louisiana	29	1,362	3	123	31	1,100	10	383
Maine	46	1,317	1	45	45	2,099	3	19	9	90
Maryland	31	1,612	7	304	25	1,310	6	120	15	316
Massachusetts	98	3,550	33	695	95	6,820	26	325	40	800
Michigan	55	3,587	5	124	36	1,185	5	79	22	328
Minnesota	46	1,892	6	35	34	1,314	22	348	14	429

STATES	LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH	
	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils	Schools	Pupils
Mississippi	26	1,148	3	196	17	432	1	201	8	398
Missouri	48	2,713	6	126	32	1,128	5	195	19	658
Montana	7	441	3	56	6	153
Nebraska	23	816	8	106	4	99	8	116
Nevada
New Hampshire	17	940	5	104	17	1,255	3	68	6	162
New Jersey	63	4,506	14	726	54	3,031	11	373	43	1,377
New Mexico	5	116	1	1	3	45	11	302
New York	206	12,885	26	955	191	10,431	47	767	92	2,356
North Carolina	50	2,642	10	78	34	993	5	76	14	189
North Dakota	7	166	2	23	8	133	3	53	2	12
Ohio	68	5,784	10	316	44	2,013	8	155	43	867
Oklahoma	20	454	8	101	13	116
Oregon	12	249	2	10	8	180	1	27	7	69
Pennsylvania	125	10,026	25	418	99	5,377	30	474	79	3,069
Rhode Island	15	1,425	5	352	15	1,374	2	40	6	212
South Carolina	22	994	7	55	14	443	3	85
South Dakota	7	255	3	61	3	91	1	3
Tennessee	37	2,077	8	139	25	670	3	44	17	398
Texas	41	1,359	4	59	20	391	7	83	30	885
Utah	8	281	7	217	2	23	4	177
Vermont	18	883	5	94	18	877	2	10	6	175
Virginia	47	2,322	5	44	38	1,792	5	47	19	752
Washington	24	825	1	15	18	329	2	9	11	202
West Virginia	11	427	3	59	10	316	1	5	3	57
Wisconsin	31	1,716	4	140	22	845	12	510	10	262
Wyoming	1	43	1	4	1	14

TABLE IV

Percentage of pupils enrolled in foreign languages in public and private secondary schools in 1921-1922 (approximately 76% reporting) not including pupils in the 7th and 8th grades of junior high schools.

STATES	LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
<i>Continental United States</i>	27.5	53.0	0.1	3.4	15.5	32.5	0.6	3.2	11.3	11.7
Alabama	22.9	52.3	..	1.1	7.1	11.9	7.0	5.9
Arizona	10.3	19.4	..	0.4	1.1	9.7	..	0.8	44.4	28.2
Arkansas	33.5	43.9	6.6	3.2	2.6	1.3
California	12.3	44.7	..	1.1	9.6	25.8	..	1.5	29.4	26.4
Colorado	27.4	70.5	..	0.1	7.2	18.9	0.1	..	20.2	9.3
Connecticut	24.9	58.1	0.1	3.9	34.4	57.7	2.1	3.1	9.1	9.4
Delaware	32.5	78.3	..	5.0	22.4	62.4	..	5.6	8.3	8.5
District of Columbia	28.7	48.1	..	0.5	26.6	64.7	1.3	1.3	22.1	7.3
Florida	39.5	73.3	..	1.7	8.2	14.3	12.1	20.8
Georgia	37.3	52.5	0.2	3.1	15.5	28.9	..	0.4	8.7	6.4
Idaho	17.9	28.7	..	0.2	4.4	6.5	0.7	0.2	9.9	9.7
Illinois	25.9	56.7	..	1.6	10.2	23.3	1.0	3.6	8.2	10.6
Indiana	43.7	60.5	..	5.2	10.0	19.7	..	8.3	5.1	15.9
Iowa	18.7	56.0	..	0.8	4.0	9.5	..	3.6	1.8	3.7
Kansas	21.0	47.0	..	0.4	2.9	6.8	..	10.1	6.8	8.5
Kentucky	49.5	72.1	..	0.9	13.5	17.9	0.4	2.5	6.6	7.9
Louisiana	21.8	54.7	..	4.9	19.5	44.1	6.3	15.4
Maine	26.3	30.0	..	1.0	41.2	47.7	0.3	0.4	2.4	2.0
Maryland	35.1	62.4	0.2	11.8	36.9	50.7	0.2	4.6	4.6	12.2
Massachusetts	25.2	31.9	0.5	6.2	38.5	61.2	3.1	2.9	11.0	7.2
Michigan	24.7	47.9	0.1	1.7	14.1	15.8	0.1	1.1	4.3	4.4
Minnesota	19.8	35.1	..	0.6	10.3	24.4	0.6	6.5	4.7	8.0

STATES	LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
Mississippi	33.2	38.4	..	6.6	7.2	14.4	..	6.7	2.4	13.3
Missouri	22.9	54.6	..	2.5	7.6	22.7	..	3.9	9.1	13.3
Montana	16.8	48.1	6.3	6.1	8.3	16.7
Nebraska	43.8	55.9	5.5	7.3	0.1	6.8	3.7	7.9
Nevada	9.5	12.5	38.8	..
New Hampshire	26.2	41.3	..	4.6	52.1	55.2	1.8	3.0	4.2	7.1
New Jersey	25.3	68.3	..	11.0	25.8	45.9	1.1	5.6	22.4	20.9
New Mexico	10.5	30.5	..	0.3	0.2	11.8	53.4	79.5
New York	30.8	60.6	0.2	4.5	26.6	49.0	2.0	3.6	21.4	11.1
North Carolina	55.8	53.2	..	1.6	26.3	20.0	0.2	1.5	2.9	3.8
North Dakota	21.1	26.2	..	3.6	9.1	21.0	1.1	8.4	1.7	1.9
Ohio	30.9	74.5	..	4.1	15.3	25.9	0.1	2.0	8.9	11.2
Oklahoma	24.5	58.7	3.7	13.0	15.8	15.0
Oregon	24.9	34.4	..	1.4	7.6	24.9	..	3.7	9.3	9.5
Pennsylvania	34.9	67.1	0.2	2.8	20.2	36.0	0.6	3.2	8.7	20.5
Rhode Island	24.4	68.7	1.3	17.0	30.4	66.2	1.4	1.9	8.7	10.2
South Carolina	52.9	55.1	..	3.0	17.1	24.6	0.4	4.7
South Dakota	29.5	42.5	8.2	10.2	0.2	15.2	2.9	0.5
Tennessee	35.1	54.2	..	3.6	12.1	17.5	..	1.1	3.6	10.4
Texas	24.4	37.3	..	1.6	2.7	10.7	0.1	2.3	29.1	24.3
Utah	3.9	13.9	7.6	10.7	..	1.1	7.5	8.7
Vermont	26.8	38.6	..	4.1	39.1	38.4	..	0.4	1.6	7.7
Virginia	45.1	51.1	..	1.0	19.9	39.5	..	1.0	6.6	16.6
Washington	1.9	51.6	..	0.9	14.2	20.6	0.1	0.6	16.1	12.6
West Virginia	19.8	45.8	..	6.3	13.0	33.9	..	0.5	6.0	6.1
Wisconsin	13.8	44.0	..	3.6	5.8	21.7	1.4	13.1	2.3	6.7
Wyoming	24.7	23.5	9.8	2.2	11.0	7.7

TABLE V

Percentage of pupils enrolled in Latin in different types of public and private secondary schools in 1921-1922 (approximately 76% reporting) not including pupils in the 7th and 8th grades of junior high schools.

	TOTAL ENROLMENT	LATIN ENROLMENT	PERCENTAGE
<i>Public high schools:</i>			
In places of 100,000 and over	590,374	137,730	23.3
In places of 30,000 to 100,000	245,631	63,032	25.7
In places of 2,500 to 30,000	605,581	173,156	28.6
In places of under 2,500	713,874	219,168	30.7
Total	2,155,460	593,086	27.5
<i>Private schools</i>	180,163	95,461	53.0
<i>Public and private schools</i>	2,335,623	688,547	29.5

NOTE: The lower percentage of Latin enrolment in the larger towns and cities is partly due to the fact that the larger towns and cities contain most of the technical and commercial secondary schools. In these schools Latin is seldom taught.

TABLE VI

Gain or loss by percentages in foreign language enrolment in 1921-1922 as compared with 1914-1915 (not including pupils in the 7th and 8th grades of junior high schools).

	LATIN	GREEK	FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH
<i>Public high schools:</i>					
1914-1915	37.3	0.3	8.8	24.4	2.4
1921-1922	27.5	0.1	15.5	0.6	11.3
Gain or loss	-9.8	-0.2	+6.7	-23.8	+8.9
<i>Private schools:</i>					
1914-1915	54.9	5.8	26.7	22.3	2.7
1921-1922	53.0	3.4	32.5	3.2	11.7
Gain or loss	-1.9	-2.4	+5.8	-19.1	+9.0

The approximate change in actual enrolment during these 7 years was as follows (public and private schools combined, 7th and 8th grades not included):

Latin +125,000, Greek -6,500, French +305,000, German -460,000, Spanish +295,000.

TABLE VII

Estimated distribution of foreign language enrolment in 1923-1924 by grades.

PUBLIC SCHOOLS

	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	Total
LATIN	4,890	11,410	374,900	256,725	114,100	52,975	815,000
GREEK			300	1,110	990	600	3,000
FRENCH	6,975	11,625	116,250	144,150	120,900	65,100	465,000
GERMAN	200	300	9,400	8,100	6,700	3,300	28,000
SPANISH	2,200	6,200	110,500	97,500	61,000	27,600	305,000

By percentages.

	7th	8th	9th	10th	11th	12th	Total
Total enrolment	4	5	35	25	18	13	100
LATIN	0.6	1.4	46	31.5	14	6.5	100
GREEK			10	37	33	20	100
FRENCH	1.5	2.5	25	31	26	14	100
GERMAN	0.7	1.1	33.6	28.9	23.9	11.8	100
SPANISH	0.7	2.0	36.2	32	20	9.1	100

TABLE VIII

Estimated distribution of foreign language enrolment in 1923-1924 by years (or grades).

PRIVATE SCHOOLS

	<i>First Year</i> (9th)	<i>Second Year</i> (10th)	<i>Third Year</i> (11th)	<i>Fourth Year</i> (12th)	<i>Total</i>
LATIN	48,750	35,000	25,000	16,250	125,000
GREEK	880	2,560	2,640	1,920	8,000
FRENCH	16,500	22,500	21,000	15,000	75,000
GERMAN	3,100	3,200	3,400	2,300	12,000
SPANISH	5,250	7,500	7,250	5,000	25,000

By percentages.

	<i>First Year</i> (9th)	<i>Second Year</i> (10th)	<i>Third Year</i> (11th)	<i>Fourth Year</i> (12th)	<i>Total</i>
Total enrolment	34	27	22	17	100
LATIN	39	28	20	13	100
GREEK	11	32	33	24	100
FRENCH	22	30	28	20	100
GERMAN	25.8	26.7	28.3	19.2	100
SPANISH	21	30	29	20	100

TABLE IX

Foreign language work offered in 1922-1923 in 10,177 secondary schools (1,385 private schools and academies and 8,792 public senior high schools, about 50% of the entire number in the country and 60% of the number offering work in any foreign language).

STATES	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REPORTING	NUMBER			LATIN		Total	None	GREEK	FRENCH		GERMAN SPANISH	
		4 years or more	3 years	2 years	1 year	3 years or more				Total	German	Spanish	
Alabama	91	52	16	18	2	88	3	6	9	43	1	17	
Arizona	33	4	1	12	2	19	14	0	0	3	0	33	
Arkansas	80	27	17	33	1	78	2	0	2	33	2	5	
California	316	138	32	107	3	280	36	16	110	193	10	286	
Colorado	117	61	6	44	2	113	4	1	8	50	4	81	
Connecticut	92	79	3	4	2	88	4	14	80	91	21	42	
Delaware	21	12	5	4	0	21	0	2	6	19	2	5	
District of Columbia	24	23	0	0	0	23	1	2	22	22	10	18	
Florida	59	40	6	13	0	59	0	0	3	25	1	23	
Georgia	134	75	37	20	1	133	1	5	12	75	2	25	
Idaho	80	12	4	46	5	67	13	1	4	30	2	34	
Illinois	577	242	47	276	3	568	9	12	84	274	54	103	
Indiana	542	157	135	232	1	525	17	7	58	121	6	55	
Iowa	437	107	15	283	14	419	18	3	14	104	8	34	
Kansas	353	48	57	201	22	328	25	1	15	77	8	77	
Kentucky	221	125	20	73	1	219	2	5	17	118	18	40	
Louisiana	127	27	40	26	1	94	33	3	49	81	0	19	
Maine	182	145	4	20	2	171	11	4	118	178	9	17	
Maryland	89	46	4	35	0	85	4	4	24	72	8	12	
Massachusetts	277	247	9	8	2	266	11	50	252	275	94	106	
Michigan	395	114	21	248	6	389	6	4	39	194	12	56	
Minnesota	317	81	8	175	18	282	35	7	23	142	28	47	
Mississippi	90	34	32	19	2	87	3	4	4	41	2	13	
Missouri	290	75	15	179	3	272	18	10	34	99	10	62	

STATES	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REPORTING	LATIN			GREEK	FRENCH		GERMAN SPANISH				
		4 years or more	3 years	2 years		1 year	Total	None	3 years or more	Total		
Montana	103	27	4	51	2	84	19	0	7	45	0	40
Nebraska	382	45	72	251	13	381	1	3	8	44	7	44
Nevada	11	1	0	7	0	8	3	0	0	5	1	10
New Hampshire	67	55	0	3	1	59	8	6	50	66	8	12
New Jersey	168	150	7	5	2	164	4	19	142	154	16	86
New Mexico	47	9	1	16	0	26	21	0	1	5	1	42
New York	757	512	132	88	9	741	16	44	449	667	96	214
North Carolina	268	199	35	29	2	265	3	14	20	221	6	34
North Dakota	155	17	8	84	18	127	28	0	5	67	16	8
Ohio	666	392	57	198	9	656	10	12	84	395	14	127
Oklahoma	207	25	12	144	5	186	21	0	7	50	1	103
Oregon	145	26	7	95	2	130	15	3	9	51	2	50
Pennsylvania	763	452	171	125	9	757	6	32	172	454	54	181
Rhode Island	32	26	0	3	0	29	3	4	27	32	7	14
South Carolina	72	38	25	7	1	71	1	5	5	43	2	3
South Dakota	141	31	13	84	3	131	10	0	8	52	4	9
Tennessee	118	77	18	20	0	115	3	8	8	72	3	18
Texas	259	98	46	69	6	219	40	4	26	45	13	168
Utah	14	5	2	3	1	11	3	0	6	14	3	6
Vermont	74	59	4	7	2	72	2	1	47	71	3	15
Virginia	258	124	29	95	4	252	6	3	34	180	8	25
Washington	210	42	5	105	2	154	56	2	29	135	9	106
West Virginia	103	22	11	50	4	87	16	3	8	83	1	23
Wisconsin	175	81	7	59	1	148	27	2	23	90	30	19
Wyoming	38	8	2	24	2	36	2	0	2	21	0	10
Total	10,177	4,492	1,202	3,698	191	9,583	594	326	2,162	5,422	617	2,577
Percentages		44.1	11.8	36.4	1.9	94.2	5.8	3.2	21.1	53.4	6.1	25.3

TABLE X

Percentages of schools offering work in various foreign languages in 1922-1923, based on returns from 10,177 secondary schools (junior high schools not included). These percentages undoubtedly hold good approximately for the 17,000 secondary schools of the country, out of a total of 20,500, which offer work in any foreign language.

	LATIN				GREEK	FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH
	4 years or more	3 years	2 years	1 year		3 years or more	Total	Total	Total	
<i>Public schools</i> in 6,794 places of under 2,500	27.6	14.1	48.4	2.6		.1	8.3	40.4	1.6	13.7
<i>Public schools</i> in 1,559 places of 2,500-30,000	73.5	8.7	15.8	.2	.6		32.8	77.7	4.1	40.8
<i>Public schools</i> in 172 places of 30,000-100,000	82.6	7.5	8.2	0.			64.5	91.2	18.	73.3
<i>Public schools</i> in 267 places of over 100,000	79.8	6.4	3.8	.3	15.		86.5	97.4	30.	89.1
<i>Total public schools</i> (8,792)	38.4	12.8	40.5	2.0	.8	16.1	49.8		3.2	21.9
<i>Private schools</i> (1,385)	80.9	5.7	9.8	.9	18.2	53.7	76.2		24.	46.
<i>Grand total</i> (10,177)	44.1	11.8	36.4	1.9	3.2	21.1	53.4		6.1	25.3

TABLE XI

Certain facts as to the educational qualifications of 10,439 teachers of Latin in secondary schools—about 46% of the total number.

DEGREES ¹		YEARS OF LATIN STUDIED							
A.B.	A.M.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 or more
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS									
<i>Places of 100,000 and over; 985 teachers reporting</i>									
881	225	2	1	4	31	55	102	147	643
89.4%	22.8	.2	.1	.4	3.	5.8	10.3	14.9	65.3
<i>Places of from 30,000 to 100,000; 494 teachers reporting</i>									
422	58	1	1	3	23	37	67	89	273
85.5%	11.7	.2	.2	.6	4.6	7.5	13.6	18.	55.3
<i>Places of from 2,500 to 30,000; 1,885 teachers reporting</i>									
1,618	149	3	16	44	173	215	362	271	801
85.8%	7.9	.1	.9	2.3	9.2	11.4	19.2	14.4	42.5
<i>Places of under 2,500; 5,387 teachers reporting</i>									
3,399	199	34	269	457	1,240	935	931	536	965
63.1%	3.7	.7	5.0	8.5	23.0	17.4	17.4	10.0	18.0
TOTAL PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS, 8,751 teachers reporting									
6,320	631	40	287	508	1,467	1,242	1,462	1,063	2,682
72.3%	7.4	.5	3.3	5.8	16.8	14.0	16.7	12.2	30.7
PRIVATE SCHOOLS; 1,688 teachers reporting									
1,295	266	1	41	46	191	158	336	163	752
76.7%	15.8	.1	2.5	2.7	11.3	9.2	20.0	9.6	44.6
TOTAL PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS; 10,439 teachers reporting									
7,615	897	41	328	554	1,658	1,400	1,798	1,226	3,434
72.9%	8.6	.4	3.1	5.3	16.1	13.4	17.1	11.7	32.9

¹The degrees are to be read in terms of equivalents. A.B. means eight years of work beyond the elementary schools, with an A.B. or corresponding degree. A.M. means nine years of work with an advanced degree.

Sixty-six (0.6%) of the 10,439 teachers hold the degree of Ph.D. and 919 (9%) have studied or traveled abroad.

About 25% of the total number have not gone beyond the secondary stage in their own study of Latin. About 27% have studied Greek, one-half of these not going beyond the secondary stage.

It is probable that the percentage of degree holders (both A.B. and A.M.) among the teachers appointed during the past ten years is considerably larger than indicated above.

TABLE XI (2)

Certain facts as to the educational qualifications of 10,439 teachers of Latin in secondary schools—about 46% of the total number.

DEGREES		YEARS OF GREEK STUDIED							Total
A.B.	A.M.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
or more									
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS									
<i>Places of 100,000 and over; 985 teachers reporting</i>									
881	225	49	66	96	91	64	67	183	616
89.4%	22.8	5.	6.7	9.7	9.2	6.5	6.8	18.6	62.5
<i>Places of from 30,000 to 100,000; 494 teachers reporting</i>									
422	58	30	29	31	33	22	19	34	198
85.5%	11.7	6.1	6.0	6.3	6.7	4.4	3.8	6.8	40.1
<i>Places of from 2,500 to 30,000; 1,885 teachers reporting</i>									
1,618	149	100	126	73	91	54	40	46	530
85.8%	7.9	5.3	6.7	3.9	4.8	2.9	2.1	2.4	28.1
<i>Places of under 2,500; 5,387 teachers reporting</i>									
3,399	199	228	175	167	125	49	31	41	816
63.1%	3.7	4.2	3.2	3.2	2.3	.9	.6	.8	15.5
TOTAL PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS, 8,751 teachers reporting									
6,320	631	407	396	367	340	189	157	304	2,160
72.3%	7.4	4.6	4.5	4.2	3.9	2.2	1.8	3.5	24.7
PRIVATE SCHOOLS; 1,688 teachers reporting									
1,295	266	59	80	83	128	74	53	162	639
76.7%	15.8	3.5	4.7	4.9	7.6	4.4	3.1	9.5	37.8
TOTAL PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS; 10,439 teachers reporting									
7,615	897	466	476	450	468	263	210	466	2,799
72.9%	8.6	4.5	4.6	4.3	4.5	2.5	2.0	4.5	26.8

TABLE XII

Enrolment in Latin, Greek, French, German and Spanish in 1922-1923 in 539 or 59% of the 609 American colleges.

STATES	NUMBER NUMBER		LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH		GERMAN		SPANISH	
	OF	REPORTING	College	Secondary	College	Secondary	College	Secondary	College	Secondary	College	Secondary
COLLEGES			Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total	Total
Alabama	12	8	121	31	152	49	3	52	771	150	519	
Arizona	1	1	20	0	20	9	0	9	333	33	916	
Arkansas	9	5	280	189	469	70	0	70	493	74	459	
California	16	13	429	91	520	411	86	497	4,690	1,560	3,890	
Colorado	7	6	316	45	361	36	23	59	940	249	1,012	
Connecticut	5	5	562	21	583	126	70	196	1,439	407	432	
Delaware	1	1	17	0	17	19	22	41	173	21	20	
District of Columbia	8	7	588	161	749	232	80	312	891	193	743	
Florida	5	3	106	33	139	32	0	32	350	14	395	
Georgia	20	18	708	722	1,430	180	52	232	1,568	506	1,193	
Idaho	3	3	16	37	53	1	16	17	327	32	251	
Illinois	33	29	887	1,061	1,948	328	229	559	5,126	1,756	3,414	
Indiana	20	19	1,116	374	1,490	445	155	600	4,271	1,920	2,966	
Iowa	25	23	434	634	1,068	248	207	455	2,569	922	2,053	
Kansas	17	16	161	499	660	90	73	163	1,281	390	2,056	
Kentucky	10	9	214	550	764	126	120	246	1,000	229	563	
Louisiana	7	5	216	56	272	82	35	117	593	0	421	
Maine	4	4	416	9	425	180	10	190	837	517	530	
Maryland	15	15	340	194	534	113	74	187	1,621	382	1,074	
Massachusetts	21	21	2,631	236	2,867	659	902	1,561	5,348	2,107	1,450	
Michigan	13	13	402	770	1,172	211	249	460	2,735	794	1,726	
Minnesota	12	12	671	483	1,154	287	78	365	2,230	993	1,496	
Mississippi	10	8	269	200	469	115	16	131	875	97	630	
Missouri	15	14	291	157	448	198	116	314	2,002	661	1,968	
Montana	5	5	75	22	97	14	16	30	636	0	718	

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STATES	NUMBER NUMBER OF REPORTING COLLEGES		LATIN		GREEK		FRENCH	GERMAN	SPANISH
			College	Secondary	College	Secondary	Total		
Nebraska	13	11	316	120	129	26	155	1,369	1,311
Nevada	1	1	11	0	0	0	0	194	338
New Hampshire	3	3	259	73	22	92	114	1,166	531
New Jersey	7	6	723	251	268	198	466	1,543	831
New Mexico	3	3	9	6	38	0	38	22	178
New York	41	38	3,757	457	1,084	235	1,319	9,887	4,816
North Carolina	22	14	862	50	289	54	343	4,003	1,351
North Dakota	4	4	74	10	9	2	11	508	226
Ohio	40	39	1,374	1,506	563	383	946	6,780	4,504
Oklahoma	9	8	91	115	109	64	173	983	1,635
Oregon	8	8	107	118	100	31	131	912	908
Pennsylvania	46	42	2,158	983	955	799	1,754	6,590	2,458
Rhode Island	3	3	297	7	103	52	155	577	286
South Carolina	19	10	224	11	39	0	39	981	409
South Dakota	7	7	117	63	35	10	45	287	223
Tennessee	19	15	418	208	298	81	379	1,535	1,141
Texas	20	19	575	229	129	32	161	2,262	5,149
Utah	3	3	20	104	0	7	7	402	382
Vermont	4	4	270	11	81	32	113	627	415
Virginia	18	17	646	255	188	125	313	2,324	1,208
Washington	6	5	148	53	45	35	80	1,010	704
West Virginia	5	4	86	125	27	5	32	667	437
Wisconsin	13	11	614	142	112	21	133	1,303	2,083
Wyoming	1	1	3	0	3	0	3	60	90
Total	609	539	24,445	11,472	8,887	4,916	13,803	89,091	62,509

NOTE: The terms "secondary Latin" and "secondary Greek" are self-explanatory. They do not, however, include the enrolment in any high school or preparatory department, but only in the college proper.

TABLE XIII

Certain facts regarding Latin and Greek in American colleges in 1922-1923, all colleges (609) reporting.

STATES	NUMBER OF COLLEGES	NUMBER OFFERING COURSES IN				NUMBER ACCEPTING		NUMBER REQUIRING		
		Beginning		Teacher Training		FOR ADMISSION		TO A.B. COURSE		
		Latin	Greek	Latin	Greek-English	Latin	Greek	Latin	Greek	
Alabama	12	3	7	4	3	2	12	8	7	1
Arizona	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0
Arkansas	9	2	7	1	1	1	9	8	1	0
California	16	6	14	6	2	5	16	16	4	1
Colorado	7	5	4	3	1	1	7	7	3	0
Connecticut	5	1	4	1	1	1	5	5	3	2
Delaware	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
District of Columbia	8	4	7	3	1	3	8	8	2	0
Florida	5	4	5	2	1	2	5	3	4	0
Georgia	20	5	12	9	2	1	20	20	10	0
Idaho	3	2	3	1	1	2	13	3	0	0
Illinois	33	17	29	18	4	8	32	32	10	2
Indiana	20	13	17	12	6	4	20	20	3	1
Iowa	25	17	24	11	4	8	25	25	0	0
Kansas	17	7	14	9	4	6	17	16	2	1
Kentucky	10	6	10	5	1	5	10	10	4	1
Louisiana	7	3	5	2	1	1	7	6	3	0
Maine	4	1	3	2	0	3	4	4	3	0
Maryland	15	5	9	3	1	2	15	15	3	0
Massachusetts	21	1	14	3	5	8	21	20	13	2
Michigan	13	6	10	7	3	5	13	13	3	0

STATES	NUMBER OF COLLEGES	NUMBER OFFERING COURSES IN				NUMBER ACCEPTING FOR ADMISSION		NUMBER REQUIRING FOR ADMISSION TO A.B. COURSE		
		<i>Beginning Latin</i>	<i>Beginning Greek</i>	<i>Teacher Training Latin</i>	<i>Latin- English</i>	<i>Greek- English</i>	<i>Latin</i>	<i>Greek</i>	<i>Latin</i>	<i>Greek</i>
Minnesota	12	9	12	10	2	3	12	9	4	0
Mississippi	10	3	3	3	0	0	10	9	2	0
Missouri	15	9	13	7	0	5	14	14	5	0
Montana	5	1	2	2	0	0	5	5	0	0
Nebraska	13	10	13	7	1	4	13	13	2	0
Nevada	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	0
New Hampshire	3	2	3	0	1	1	3	3	2	0
New Jersey	7	2	6	1	0	1	7	7	4	0
New Mexico	3	1	1	0	0	0	3	3	0	0
New York	41	11	31	13	9	15	41	39	27	2
North Carolina	22	3	13	6	0	2	22	17	13	1
North Dakota	4	2	3	3	2	2	4	4	0	0
Ohio	40	18	35	20	8	14	40	35	13	1
Oklahoma	9	0	4	6	3	1	9	8	1	0
Oregon	8	5	6	2	1	3	8	8	2	0
Pennsylvania	46	6	35	18	11	18	45	41	25	2
Rhode Island	3	0	1	0	1	1	3	3	2	1
South Carolina	19	3	8	5	1	1	19	14	5	0
South Dakota	7	3	5	3	3	3	7	6	0	0
Tennessee	19	5	18	6	3	3	19	18	6	0
Texas	20	8	16	6	1	2	20	13	1	0
Utah	3	3	1	1	0	0	3	3	0	0
Vermont	4	2	3	1	1	2	4	4	3	1
Virginia	18	1	16	3	2	3	18	17	12	0
Washington	6	5	6	2	2	2	6	6	3	1

TABLE XIII—Continued

STATES	NUMBER OF COLLEGES	NUMBER OFFERING COURSES IN				NUMBER ACCEPTING FOR ADMISSION		NUMBER REQUIRING FOR ADMISSION	
		Beginning Latin	Beginning Greek	Teacher Training Latin	Latin- English	Greek- English	Latin	Greek	Latin
West Virginia	5	3	3	1	0	0	5	5	0
Wisconsin	13	8	11	7	2	2	13	12	3
Wyoming	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0
Total	609	234	470	237	97	156	606	559	214
Percentages		38.4	77.2	38.9	15.9	25.6	99.5	91.8	35.1
									3.3

NOTES: For explanation of "Latin-English" and "Greek-English" courses, see page 24.

In a number of cases colleges which require Latin (in amounts varying from two to four years) for admission to the A.B. course allow the substitution of Greek.

Ten colleges report teacher-training courses in Greek.

It is probable that many of the colleges which do not name Greek as one of the subjects accepted for admission accept it if actually offered by a candidate. The same is probably true of the three colleges which do not name Latin among the subjects accepted for admission.

APPENDIX B

QUOTATIONS ON METHODS OF TEACHING THE COMPREHENSION OF LATIN

(See Chapter V, Section 5)

The following quotation is from the Report of the Committee of Ten:¹

“Learning to Understand the Latin. The success of the student in one of the points most essential to the attainment of power to read, namely, in learning to understand his author in his author’s tongue, will depend in a large degree upon the attitude of mind of his teacher. The latter should from the very beginning hold up the idea that the highest aim of Latin scholarship, on the literary side, is to be able to read Latin, as every competent scholar learns to read French and German, with a direct comprehension and enjoyment of the very words written by the author, not of an English substitute made by the reader. The student should be taught to regard translation, not as a means of finding out what his author has said, but as, on the one hand, a way of making it clear to his instructor that he has understood and, on the other, an exercise in expression,—a literary exercise,—in his own tongue. And finally it should be shown him that, even on the most practical grounds, to attempt to find out the meaning of a Latin sentence through translating it (as the common way is) is an operation almost sure to miscarry; that the Latin, as in the case of a *qui*-clause, an *ut*-clause, a *cum*-clause, etc., often uses a single word as connective, where the English would employ one or another out of a large group (e.g., for the *ut*-clause, ‘when,’ ‘just as,’ ‘although,’ ‘in order to,’ ‘so that’), and that to translate by anything whatsoever,

¹See Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Subjects published for the National Education Association by the American Book Company (1894), pp. 70-72.

before the complete evidence of the entire sentence has been had and the relation of part to part seen, is to run a very large risk of going astray at this point, and of being led still further afield in other points in the unconscious attempt to make them consistent with the first mistake. But the student dealing with a language in which the form of the sentence is entirely new to him is naturally prone to go astray in precisely this way. He should therefore constantly receive practical help. Practice in translating at sight, or more exactly *in understanding at sight*, under the instructor's eye and then translating ought to be given daily, or at least very frequently. In general, the best passage for the purpose will be the passage immediately following the lesson of the day, for the double reason that the student is familiar with the context and that, when the additional exercise carries him straight on to his end, he feels the reality of his progress. The Latin should always be read aloud, sometimes by a student, sometimes by the master, before any translation is ventured upon. The master should stop the student here and there, if his way of reading shows that his grouping is wrong, or if any indication proves that he has not understood; and other pupils should be asked to correct him. Where a word is employed to give notice in advance that something is coming, this should be made clear by the way of reading. Where a Latin word calls for some construction yet to come to complete its meaning, and either of several constructions may be employed according to the exact shade of the author's thought (as, e.g., *dico* may be followed by the interrogative subjunctive clause, or by the infinitive, or by an *ut*- or *ne*-clause, according as the idea is of asking a question, or stating a fact, or giving a direction), this range of possibilities should be pointed out (unless it has already been pointed out so frequently that the class has become familiar with it); after which nothing further need be said when the completing construction, thus already foreseen as a possibility or certainty, is actually reached. Where there is danger of going astray through misapprehension of the syntax of a word, the construction (i.e., the force of the case, the mode, or the tense) should be asked for. No question upon construction should

be put except as a means of guiding the class to an understanding of the meaning of the Latin and consequently every question of this sort should precede the translation.

"When a sentence is manifestly easy, and has probably been understood by the class, it is well to pass straight on without translating it. The greater part of what is read will, however, require translation.

"The habit of trying to understand a sentence in the original, before translating, will be more easily acquired, if the teacher will from time to time put a new passage upon the board, a word or phrase at a time, or, better yet, read it aloud, calling attention as he goes along, by comment or question, to indications of meaning which would have guided a Roman, but asking for no translation until the whole passage has been written or read.

"In the preparation of his daily lesson by himself, the student should be urged to study the Latin, in entire faithfulness to the aims stated above, in the order in which it is written, without any skipping about. The sentence should be read through once, twice or, if necessary, three times in the Latin, with no reference to the making of a translation but with the mind fixed upon grasping the meaning directly. If the effort has in part failed, the student may then help himself by making a rough rendering of the sentence, word by word, still in the Latin order, and with great suspense of mind in the case of words that are capable of corresponding to a variety of phrases in English. This rough-rendering, however, must be regarded as a mere temporary expedient, as the last resort for getting at the meaning, not, of course, as translation into English. The preparation for the translation to be given in the class-room is an entirely different exercise and should be the last act of the preparation of the lesson."

The following quotation is from the Report of the Commission on College Entrance Requirements² and appears in the regular announcement of the College Entrance Examination Board:

² See *Proceedings of the American Philological Association*, XLI (1910) cxxxvii.

“Exercises in translation at sight should begin in school with the first lessons in which Latin sentences of any length occur, and should continue throughout the course with sufficient frequency to insure correct methods of work on the part of the student. From the outset particular attention should be given to developing the ability to take in the meaning of each word—and so, gradually, of the whole sentence—just as it stands; the sentence should be read and understood in the order of the original, with full appreciation of the force of each word as it comes, so far as this can be known or inferred from that which has preceded and from the form and the position of the word itself. The habit of reading in this way should be encouraged and cultivated as the best preparation for all the translating that the student has to do.”

The following quotations are from Professor Hale’s “The Art of Reading Latin”:³

“The Latin sentence is constructed upon a plan entirely different from that of the English sentence. Until that plan is just as familiar to the student as the English plan, until, for page after page, he takes in ideas as readily and naturally on the one plan as on the other, until, in short, a single steady reading of the sentence carries his mind through the very same development of thought that took place in the mind of the writer, he cannot read Latin otherwise than slowly and painfully. So, then, an absolutely essential thing to a man who wants to read Latin is a perfect working familiarity with the Roman ways of constructing sentences.

“I remember well how I was taught at Phillips Exeter Academy—of revered memory—to attack a Latin sentence. ‘First find your verb, and translate it,’ said my teacher. ‘Then find your subject, and translate. Then find the modifiers of the subject, then the modifiers of the verb,’ etc., etc. Well, I had got more than four years beyond Exeter before I learned to read Latin with any feeling but that it was a singularly circuitous and perverted way of expressing

³ W. G. Hale, *The Art of Reading Latin*, Mentzer, Burk & Co. (1887), pp. 7-8 and 12-15.

ideas, which I could not expect to grasp until I had reformed my author's sentences and reduced them to English.

"Now, all this is wrong. It is a frightful source of confusion to prowl about here and there in the sentence in a self-blinded way that would seem pathetic to a Roman, looking at things without the side-lights afforded to him by the order; and, further, it is a frightful waste of time. Take a sentence such as often occurs; e.g., the opening of the third oration against Catiline, delivered before the people. Imagine, now, two scenes: on the one hand, the Roman Forum, on Dec. 3, 63 B.C., with a mass of men and boys listening to Cicero as he tells the story of the entangling of the conspirators remaining in Rome; on the other, a modern schoolroom, on Dec. 3, 1886 A.D. In the former case Cicero has the floor, as we say; in the latter case, the teacher, book in hand, his pupils before him. Both audiences want to get at the same thing,—*what Cicero has to say*. In the first scene Cicero proceeds:

'Rem publicam, Quirites, vitamque omnium vestrum, bona, fortunas, coniuges liberosque vestros, atque hoc domicilium clarissimi imperi, fortunatissimam pulcherrimamque urbem, hodierno die deorum immortalium summo erga vos amore, laboribus consiliis periculis meis, et flamma atque ferro ac paene ex faucibus fati ereptam et vobis conservatam ac restitutam videtis.'

"When he has said that, every soul that has heard him knows precisely what he means. Now change to the modern schoolroom. The teacher says, 'First find your subject.' So we run on, scenting out a subject:

'Rem publicam, Quirites, vitamque omnium vestrum, bona, fortunas, coniuges liberosque vestros, atque hoc domicilium clarissimi imperi, fortunatissimam pulcherrimamque urbem, hodierno die deorum immortalium summo erga vos amore, laboribus consiliis periculis meis, et flamma atque ferro ac paene ex faucibus fati ereptam et vobis conservatam ac restitutam videtis.'

"Well, we are through with the entire sentence, and there is no subject! Of course, then, it is implied in the verb, and

is the second personal pronoun, in the plural. Next we find our verb. That is, as it happens, the last word, *videtis*. Then we go back, do we, and find the modifiers of the subject and then the modifiers of the verb? No, I say to all that. *We have already, if we have been rightly brought up, understood everything in that sentence by the time we reach the last syllable of it, without having thought meanwhile of a single English word; and we are as ready in 1886 to go on immediately with the next sentence as we should have been if we had been Romans in the Roman Forum on that day in 63 B.C.* Or, to put it another way, the boy who, reaching that oration in the course of his preparation for college, cannot understand that particular sentence, and a great many much more difficult sentences in the oration, from reading it straight through once in the Latin, nay, *from merely hearing his teacher read it straight through once in the Latin*, has been wrongly trained, is wasting time sadly out of a human life all too short, and so far from being on the direct way to read Latin with speed and relish, and then to proceed to do so, is on the direct way to drop it just as soon as the elective system of his particular college will allow; and if he cares for literature, to go into some language in which it is *not* necessary, first to find the subject, and then the predicate, and then the modifiers of the subject, and then the modifiers of the predicate, and then to do the same thing for the subordinate sentence, or, if there are several subordinate sentences, to do the same thing for each one of them in the order of their importance, and then to put these tattered bits together into a patchwork.

“Now, it will not do to say that students, by beginning in this way, get quite early beyond the need of it. At any rate, I can testify from my own experience that, in spite of the admirable efforts of the schools in ‘sight-reading,’ they do not, when they come to Harvard or Cornell. I allow myself in my class-room—keeping well inside of what is said to be customary among college professors—one jest a year. When I first meet the new Freshman class (for I could not bear to leave such precious material wholly to the most perfect assistant) I question them: ‘Suppose, now, you are set, as you were at the examination for admission the other

day, to tell me the meaning of a sentence in a book you never saw,—say an oration of Cicero,—how do you proceed to get at the writer's meaning?" There is at once a chorus of voices (for they are crammed for that question, having learned printed directions, as we have seen, in the first books they studied), '*First find the*—SUBJECT,' three-quarters of them say; 'PREDICATE,' the other quarter. 'Now here,' I say to them, 'is an unhappy difference of opinion about first principles in a matter of everyday practice, and of very serious importance. Which is right?' They do not know. 'Which do you suppose the Romans who heard the oration delivered in the Forum first hunted up, the subject or the predicate?' That little jest, simple as it is, always meets with great success; for it not only raises a laugh (of no value in itself), but it shows at once, even to a Freshman, the entire absurdity of trying to read Latin by a hunting-up first of either his subject or his predicate; and so enlists his sympathy in favor of trying some other way, if any can be shown him. But, at the same time, it proves to me that the method taught at the most critical of all periods, the beginning, is still wrong. Only in late years, and very rarely, does some student answer my question with: 'First read the first Latin word without translating it, then the second, then the third, and so on to the end, taking in all the possible constructions of every word, while barring out at once the impossible, and, above all, erring, if anywhere, in the direction of keeping the mind in suspense unnecessarily long, waiting, at least, until a sure solution has been given by the sentence itself.' "

The following excerpts are from an article by Professor Moore:⁴

"Translation from a foreign tongue requires a single definite mode of attack, in all essentials the same for a 'dead' language as for a 'living one' It must be precisely the same for sentences which reach us through the ear as for those which lie before the eye in cold type, except in so far as

⁴ F. G. Moore, "Haste and Waste in Translating Latin," *The Educational Review*, LV (May, 1918), pp. 417 ff.

repetition in the latter case is always possible —an advantage heavily discounted by the temptation to relax attention in the first reading, and thus to skirmish half-heartedly about, instead of risking all upon one frontal attack.

“Out of word-groups into thought-units, and again out of these into new word-groups—this is the double transfer which we call translation. And the logical basis for the double process is so clear, one is at a loss to account for all the confusion which has made it possible to imagine a single short-cut process, and to perpetuate its use, with results so depressingly negative as to suggest a cynical Varroian etymology—a *non transferendo*.

“The first problem is, of course, how to grasp the thought-units of the original, just as they stand. For any serious change of order may blunt the main point, and sharpen the less important, while even minor changes tend to confusion, or at best to unwarranted alterations in the scale of emphasis. The original order should never be deserted, even for the moment. Thus each unit must yield its meaning, if only in a provisional way, before one ventures to go to the next. The second step must not be thought of at present. For, obviously enough, we cannot select the proper English phrase, or construct a lucid English clause, still less an entire sentence, until the successive ideas presented by the original have been duly digested.

“For the all-important first step, the extraction of clear-cut thoughts from certain blocks of words standing in a given order in a foreign language, every translator is obliged to develop more or less consciously no less than four special senses. And it is most essential that these be set to work in a fixed and uniform order.

“First to be trained upon the word groups is the grammatical sense—not a deep interest in the problems of grammar, but an acquired knack of recognizing groups of words, as revealed by inflections, prepositions, and tell-tale conjunctions. Until this first sense has completed its task, there should be no conscious thought of particular words or meanings. That is, the preposition is not consciously accounted a word, but all of a piece with the word or words

which it accompanies. And the conjunction is for the moment thought of as merely introducing a certain type of clause, whose precise function it may not be necessary to define at once, but only later in retrospect. In such ways the group makes at first only a collective impression. And the wary refrain most carefully from dashing in at once to translate those multiple conjunctions, *ut*, *cum*, and the rest, or even the relative pronoun, knowing that the chances of error are very large. This need of discretion the writer has elsewhere endeavored to emphasize.

"On the street at dusk we often pass some one who looks familiar. We look hard at him, but only after he has passed and we have had time to collect our thoughts do we feel sure who it was. So with the words which introduce the dependent clauses of a Latin sentence. You have no certain clue to their identity until you are some distance away. It is most embarrassing to call them by the wrong name. There remains but one course: never speak to *ut* or *ne*, *cum* or *dum*, *quod* and the rest as you pass them in the twilight!

"The grammatical sense must first of all do its work with a limited group of words, before there is any distinct consciousness of the meaning of the words individually considered.

"This done, the second or lexical sense is now brought into action. It is based upon memory of the meanings of words and word-combinations, with some knowledge of the leading principles of word-formation, permitting inferences as to formations which appear at first blush new, but in reality contain familiar material. The lexical sense is, of course, more or less dependent upon information to be freshly sought in lexicon or vocabulary. Too often this sense receives little training that could be called methodical, and is thus forced to feel its way blindly, recognizing perhaps the first syllable or two of a word, and rashly ignoring the remainder, upon which alone depends our hope of differentiating words which closely resemble each other in outward appearance—such groups, for example, as *aura*, *aurum*, *auris* or *calva*, *calvus*, *calvis* where confusion seems to be the habitual state of the student mind. He has been

content to make a wild guess or to look up in his vocabulary that particular one of these words which occurs in today's lesson. Tomorrow he will repeat the same mechanical process and never face the problem of drawing sharp lines of distinction, to be stored away in memory for future reference, as can be so easily done, with the help in part of the corresponding French words, or by a mnemonic device.

"Next in order, in the reduction of a given word-group, a third sense is called into play. This sense has to do with rhetoric, which does not mean a mastery of all the figures and the endless terminology of the Greeks. It does mean quickness to observe the emphasis of word-order, the high relief of contrasts, and other familiar devices by which clearness or force is given to the expression of a thought, including the simpler figures. Many a dismal failure to comprehend the main thought of a sentence is due to the reluctance of teachers to recognize the importance of rhetoric, and to make clear to their pupils that grammatical literalness is distinctly a vice, if attained only by overlooking the lights and shades of rhetorical relief. It would seem sufficiently plain that a rhetorical sense is no less vital than a grammatical.

"Finally, when the group of words in question has been surveyed in turn by each of the three powers of observation of which we have been speaking, it must be closely inspected by the fourth sense, the logical power of inference. And this must combine into one product the different impressions conveyed to the mind by the other three, to give us a clear idea of the meaning of the word-group as a whole.

"By these four steps, then, the first of the two processes in translation, that is to say, apprehension, is now complete for one group of words. But before passing to the second process, expression, or translation proper, the next word-group is to be attacked in the same way as before, each of the four special senses having its part to play. Every temptation to take the leap before the look, to attempt to express what is still imperfectly apprehended should be carefully avoided. It is only when we have handled each group separately, and have by this strategic advance

at length reached the end of the sentence, that we are really prepared to translate at all.

“Of course, this method, based upon phrase and clause-units, meets the instant objection that, on first reading over a Latin sentence, a student often fails to mark off such units in his mind, seeing nothing but words and finding his way slowly to a tentative and often incorrect grouping. But this is merely to admit one of the saddest defects of our elementary training. Not to see the woods for the trees, not to see the group for the words which compose it, suggests the need of looking well to the use we are making of our vision. Such myopia can surely be corrected, and by grammatical glasses, too. But this can be done only by directing a large proportion of our grammar questions to the one end of recognition and identification of these large units—an aim of infinitely more utility than the labelling and pigeon-holing of syntactical specimens.”

The following paragraphs are from the Preliminary Report of the Committee on the Junior High School Syllabus in Latin for the State of New York (1920), pp. 45-47:

“To accept a Latin sentence in the Latin order involves a series of mental operations which, repeated many times consciously, tend gradually to become unconscious. In the performance of each of these operations the pupil should receive constant training so long as he studies Latin with progressive development, both in the difficulty of the problems presented and in the rapidity with which he is expected to solve them.

“The first operation is the recognition of the *forms* of words including all possibilities, and the *grouping* or phrasing of words upon that basis. This process should accompany the first reading of a sentence. This ability requires a better inflectional equipment than simply the capacity to repeat paradigms. It involves constant drill in carefully selected forms and combinations that experience shows to be the chief stumbling blocks.

“It is not so much inability to decline *ille, dominus, rex*, etc., that causes difficulty in analyzing the forms and groups

of a sentence, but rather inability quickly to distinguish the varying possibilities of *domini, regi, illi, acri, mari, aciei, capi, cepi, doni*, etc., or of *capita, stella, dona, ama*. In other words, there should be systematic selective drill in comparing and discriminating between forms, for the purpose of giving this power to recognize related groups promptly. This drill should be supplemented by insistence upon proper grouping in writing and reading. A valuable device is to require pupils to indicate by vertical lines or dots the groups of an advance sentence.

“Associated with this training should go training in *eliminating* ideas inconsistent with the meaning of the word or with the context and in estimating relative chances. For example, *viro* beginning a sentence will regularly be dative case, unless it forms an ablative absolute, while *agro* will usually be ablative. For, where a doubtful dative-ablative form refers to a person, it is regularly dative; when it refers to a thing, it is regularly ablative.

“All possibilities not eliminated must be consciously held in suspense and training in anticipating the various possible conclusions consistent with the context is an essential element in insuring suspended judgments and not simply suspended forms. Thus the process becomes a means of developing general powers of logical inference.

“Training in recognizing the decisive factor that resolves the suspense is the final indispensable element.

“Regarding the details of carrying out this process the committee makes several recommendations:

- (a) Daily class work on at least one sentence to be read and analyzed group by group.
- (b) Daily assignments of at least one advance sentence accompanied by explicit directions and questions to guide the pupil in carrying out the method in his study.
- (c) Constant interchange of this method with one in which the pupil is asked to give the meaning of the sentence as quickly as possible with the expectation that some of the conscious training will carry over unconsciously.

- (d) Insistence that pupils in their home study should follow the method illustrated in the classroom, asking and answering their own questions. This involves the reading of a smaller amount than is now required. Ultimately those pupils for whom Latin becomes an actual tool in college work will receive the benefit of such training in increased speed, while those for whom Latin will never become an end in itself are interested, not in the amount read, but in the result secured from reading. There is no real conflict here between the college student and the non-college student. Colleges should welcome such a preparation, even if it means a cutting down of the amount read.
- (e) The drawing up and memorization of a definite outline of procedure. The ability to state the theoretical procedure does not guarantee the ability to apply it, any more than the ability to state a grammatical rule insures the ability to apply it. It bears the same relation to correct procedure as a grammatical rule does to correct syntax and is equally indispensable.
- (f) The study and ultimate memorization of model sentences containing typical thought developments, bearing to application the same relation that the memorization of the first declension bears to the application of the forms learned. It constitutes a reservoir from which to draw.
- (g) Avoidance in the early part of the work of sentences of the '*Marcus est agricola*' type which are understandable and translatable without regard to the endings. Such sentences create false impressions of the genius of the Latin sentence and encourage the neglect of that element upon which an ultimate mastery of the Latin genius depends, the force of endings.
- (h) Emphasis upon the oral reading of the Latin as the first step in preparing a lesson, the invariable first step in all sight work.

- (i) A definite but limited amount of oral Latin of a very simple type as an aid to the pupil in gaining the conception of what it means to accept thought directly when expressed in a foreign tongue."

The following "Type Lesson in Sight Translation" is taken from the Pennsylvania Syllabus in Latin for High Schools (1923):

"From the beginning the pupil is led to see that he is learning to understand a Latin sentence just as the Romans did, gaining a tentative meaning of its various elements but reserving final judgment as to forms, meanings, and constructions until the end of the passage has been reached. It was, of course, impossible for a Roman, while listening to a speech, to search first for the subject, then for the verb, and so on. Nor is the pupil, though just beginning the study of Latin, to be allowed to proceed in such a mechanical way.

"Let the following sentence serve as an illustration: *Caesar, his rebus impulsus, equitatum omnem prima nocte ad castra hostium mittit.* The class or individual pupil first reads the sentence as a whole, without making any effort at translation. However, while reading the Latin in this way, he makes every effort to gain its meaning. The sentence is then studied in detail. As soon as possible, facts like those noted below are elicited by means of questions to the class, all the pupils participating in the work. At the beginning of the course, the teacher might proceed as follows:

Caesar: Noun, nominative singular masculine, meaning 'Caesar.' Since it stands first in the sentence, and is nominative, it is probably the subject.

his rebus impulsus: *his rebus* naturally go together, both being in the dative or the ablative plural. They are probably ablative of means with *impulsus*, since there is no possible use of the dative with the participle. It is probable that *impulsus*, being a perfect participle, in the nominative singular masculine, agrees with *Caesar*, though this can not yet be regarded as certain. *Rebus*

has so many meanings that only the context can show which is correct. Connect *impulsus* with English 'impulse' and 'impel.'

equitatum omnem: Case? Accusative singular masculine. Construction? Probably direct object of a verb occurring later in the sentence, as no preposition precedes. Hint: Watch for transitive verb.

prima nocte: Case? Ablative singular feminine. Construction? Obviously ablative of time when or within which, probably the former on account of *prima*.

ad castra hostium: Case? *Castra* may be nominative or accusative plural neuter: but since the word follows *ad*, its interpretation as a nominative becomes immediately impossible. Because of its case ending the form of *hostium* must be that of the genitive plural. The possessive is its only reasonable construction.

mittit: Form? Third singular present indicative active of a transitive verb. Use? As the last word in the sentence has been reached, it must be the main verb; and as *Caesar* is the only nominative *Caesar* must be the subject. All the parts of the sentence now fit together perfectly, and suspense is ended.

"At the beginning each step is taken consciously, to insure recognition of all the possibilities of form, meaning, and construction; but if sufficient drill is given these processes will become automatic."

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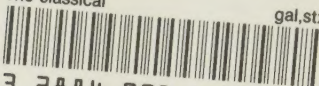
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